

THE
SATURDAY REVIEW
OF
POLITICS, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

No. 13, Vol. 1.

January 26, 1856.

PRICE 5d.
Stamped 6d.

THE APPROACHING SESSION.

ALTHOUGH Parliament will assemble while the minds of its members are engrossed with the question of Peace or War, the Session will be mainly occupied with business of a very different character. Two or three great debates will suffice to enable political leaders to deliver their manifestoes, and will give the country an opportunity, through its representatives, of bringing public opinion to bear on the conduct of the negotiations. Precedent and expediency are equally opposed to Parliamentary interference with diplomatic details. International relations belong, both in practice and in theory, to the Executive department of the State; and free discussion and publicity, though indispensable in domestic affairs, are seldom applicable to transactions in which foreign interests and susceptibilities form material subjects of consideration. It is the just boast of England to have discovered the limits, as well as the capabilities, of Constitutional Government. No Parliament, however discontented, has ever refused the Crown its assent to a peace, or its aid in carrying on a war; and while Ministers may pay the penalty of an impatriotic or unpopular policy, the nation has ever presented, alike to friends and to enemies, the unity which superficial politicians regard as the peculiar privilege of absolutism. Lord PALMERSTON and his colleagues, so long as they are at the head of affairs, possess uncontrolled power to regulate diplomatic relations, and are subject to exclusive responsibility for the result. The clamour which has occasionally been raised against secrecy in negotiation merely indicates the dissatisfaction with which some special course of policy is regarded. A Foreign Minister, even should he be willing to publish the intentions of his own Government, is not at liberty to divulge all the confidential overtures which may proceed, during a long negotiation, from half a dozen Sovereign States, who are endeavouring to reconcile their several views and pretensions.

The great question now at issue may possibly affect the tenure of office; but, whoever may be Minister, the business of Parliament must be done. Notwithstanding the flippant scepticism of modern sciolists, constitutional freedom has not yet shrivelled into a fiction, or become a theory for sophists to support or to oppose. The House of Commons still holds the purse-strings of England, and virtually appoints all the high functionaries of State; and the House of Lords also knows its rights and duties, without the need of having recourse to the warning counsels of any official journal. No Session has, for many years, passed without legislative improvements, or at least without serious experiments in legislation. Even in the crisis of the Crimean campaign, the Limited Liability Act, and the measure for the local government of the metropolis, proved the willingness of Parliament to attempt a remedy for acknowledged social grievances. Organic changes, if they are required, may conveniently be postponed to a more tranquil period. Some satirical partisan has lately contrived to insert in various newspapers a rumour that Lord JOHN RUSSELL is, for the third or fourth time, engaged in the preparation of a new Reform Bill; but the alleged design of carrying a measure essentially dependent on popular enthusiasm, at a time when no class or individual desires that it should be brought forward, is only a humorous caricature or grotesque exaggeration of the peculiar mental characteristics which it is intended to illustrate. It may safely be asserted that Parliament will not be troubled, during the approaching Session, with any plans for remodelling its own organization. The collapse of the Drury-lane agitation for so-called Administrative Reform may serve as a warning to projectors who devise vague and irrelevant cures for occasional outbreaks of discontent. It will be time enough to re-adjust our own constitutional arrangements when the attention of the country and the

efforts of statesmen are no longer concentrated on foreign relations.

The gravest and most pressing duty of the Session will devolve on the House of Commons. The great financial questions of expenditure and receipt can neither be evaded nor postponed. The amount of the estimates will virtually depend on the demands of Ministers; but the efficiency of the public service can in no way be impaired by that vigilant supervision of the enormous expenses of the war which is among the most important functions of the popular branch of the Legislature. In deciding that all the requisitions of the Government, whether for men or for material, shall be liberally met, the representatives of the people will only be giving effect to the distinct desire of their constituents. The executive and military authorities must determine the number of ships, the weight of metal, the provision of food, of stores, and of baggage animals; but the common cause is not served by paying for any article of war consumption a shilling beyond its legitimate cost. Since the Duke of NEWCASTLE'S retirement from office, newspaper correspondents have almost ceased to complain of laden ships lying at anchor on demurrage, and of huts built at prices which might have turned their timber into marble. Yet there has been no lack of material for the manufacture of this class of grievances, were the commodity in demand. The alarm and anxiety of last winter have led to their natural result in official indifference to expense; and the nation, willing to relieve the wants of the army at any imaginable cost, has not, for the time, been curious to inquire whether the supplies which were lavishly provided were bought in the cheapest market, or turned to the most profitable account. Within the last two months, at least one large steamer has returned to England with the cargo which it took out; nor could the authorities of Malta find space for ammunition which, on its return from Balaklava, had still the Bay of Biscay to traverse. In the present winter, at least one temporary cavalry stable has been built at an expense of 200*l.* for each horse, of the value, perhaps, of 50*l.* When the bills come in, there will be no use in indiscriminate grumbling; and, indeed, the objection is not to the outlay of millions, but to the waste of thousands or of hundreds. Great rulers and great commanders have always known how to be parsimonious. FREDERICK and NAPOLEON calculated to a centime the price of their soldiers' shoes; and NELSON always hoisted his second-best canvas before he went into action. Even when the war is at an end, much expense must still be incurred before we finally disarm, and the House of Commons may probably, by judicious vigilance, do much to husband the public resources.

The discussion of Ways and Means will, however, cause greater difference of opinion than the grant of supplies. Until the prospects of peace are clearer, it will be difficult to specify the resources from which the demands of the public service are to be met. It is certain that, under any circumstances, the CHANCELLOR OF THE EXCHEQUER will require a considerable loan; but the rupture of the inchoate negotiations might double the necessary amount, and at the same time make a difference against the Government of five or six per cent. in the offers of capitalists. As soon as the war is known to be virtually at an end, there will probably be no occasion to impose additional imposts, although it may be necessary to extend the term for which the war-taxes were originally granted; but a loan intended to furnish the means of another campaign must be backed up by an addition to the ordinary revenue. Notwithstanding the recent bias which has placed Mr. GLADSTONE in opposition to his former friends, the late CHANCELLOR OF THE EXCHEQUER is entitled, above almost any other statesman, to the gratitude of those who have been most zealous for the effective prosecution of the war. The bold determination to raise the revenue by

ten millions, at the commencement of the struggle, rendered a loan in the first year of the war unnecessary, and placed the public credit on the most favourable footing for any financial operations which might be subsequently required. The ordinary revenue applicable to military and naval purposes now exceeds thirty millions; and Sir CORNEWALL LEWIS has already shown his disposition to carry on the policy of his predecessor, in providing by annual taxation at least a portion of the income which may be needed. The fact that the revenue was, in the latter years of the great French war, equal to the expenditure, while loans were required only to pay the interest of former loans improvidently contracted, cannot be too constantly recalled to memory by financiers, or too earnestly impressed on the House of Commons. Peace, followed by a relief from ten or twelve millions of taxes, will render the truth familiar and popular among all classes.

It appears that the financial discussions of the Session are to be embarrassed by a reproduction of obsolete economical fallacies. Birmingham, the city of inconvertible paper, has not unfitly appropriated to itself the once popular doctrine that professional and commercial incomes ought to be subjected to a mysterious process of capitalization before they become liable to income-tax. Mr. MUNTZ and his fellow-petitioners appeal, in support of their views, to the respectable authority of Mr. HUME, and to the candid opinion of "that distinguished statesman, Mr. DISRAELI." The honest crotchets of the sturdy old reformer may safely remain exempt from criticism; and after Mr. GLADSTONE's Budget speech of 1853, the landed gentry may be trusted to keep their leader in check, if he again attempts to earn popularity at the expense of their pockets. The true representative of the Birmingham dogma is Sir FITZROY KELLY, who, during the discussions on Mr. GLADSTONE's financial scheme, formally undertook to demonstrate that every class of the community paid too large a proportion of income-tax as compared with every other class. It is but too true that the returns under Schedule D do little credit to the scrupulous integrity of the commercial community; but the owners of visible property will scarcely consent to pay the whole amount of the income-tax, simply because they already pay more than their fair share. Even if the revenues of traders were capitalized, or, in other words, reduced to a fraction of their actual amount, for the purpose of taxation, no additional security for a true return would be afforded by the process.

There is no doubt of the practical result which will ensue from the discussion which Mr. MUNTZ desires to raise. The CHANCELLOR OF THE EXCHEQUER will point out the difficulties of detail which would impede any readjustment of the tax, and the House of Commons will gladly evade the necessity of understanding the true principle of assessment. Parliament will do what is right by instinct and impulse, although many of its members will erroneously suppose themselves to be committing an act of injustice. There will, however, be a certain advantage in the revival of the discussion; for, while the advocates of a fallacy gradually become convinced of their mistake, no new adherents will take their place. It is impossible to arrive, by reasoning, at a conclusion inconsistent with arithmetical rules. The income-tax capitalizers started with a prejudice, and they have since devised arguments to justify it; but any of Mr. DISRAELI's followers who may wish to bring their consciences into accordance with their votes, will do well to consider that trade, and law, and physic are as permanent as the land itself. The incomes of the squire and the doctor bear to each other a certain proportion which has been determined by complicated economical laws, irrespective of theory and of faction. Mr. MUNTZ and Mr. DISRAELI propose arbitrarily to alter the ratio, because the doctor's practice passes to his successor, while the squire's son inherits the land; but although the incomes certainly follow different laws of transmission, yet in either case the tax follows the income. The process of capitalization, if it is to be fair, must be applied to both sides of the equation, of course with a nugatory result.

Parliament will devote itself seriously to its legislative and financial duties, in defiance of foreign ignorance or prejudice, as well as of domestic satire. With all their faults, English institutions may boldly challenge the world to a comparison of practical efficiency. The strong and enlightened Government of France is not yet strong enough to introduce free trade—the irresistible power of the Austrian

Crown cannot establish a financial balance. Freedom has proved the best security against cowardly concessions to Socialism, while it has protected the mass of the people from the oppression of the powerful. It is strange that it should be necessary in England to defend constitutional liberty; but there are sophists who would, in theory at least, sacrifice the inheritance of centuries, in the hope that here and there a job might be avoided, or a common sewer made without a preliminary dispute. The evils which, on the Continent, are not publicly mentioned are conventionally supposed not to exist.

Perhaps the chief comparative advantage of absolutism consists in the more permanent tenure of office by the high functionaries of the State. Prince METTERNICH governed Austria for nearly forty years, and Count NESSELRODE has, for a still longer period, presided over the foreign affairs of Russia. In both cases, statesmen of not more than average ability have enjoyed the advantage of long familiarity with their departments, and the prestige which attaches to recognised experience. There seems some reason to fear that the relaxation of party ties may shorten the average tenure of office in England, and diminish the necessary authority of Ministers; but the House of Commons will do well to guard against the danger of leaving the country without a Government. No systematic opposition is justifiable, unless those who conduct it are prepared to undertake the responsibilities of office, with a reasonable prospect of adequate Parliamentary support; yet there can be no doubt that a decisive majority would reject the proposal to place Lord DERBY and his friends in power. Lord JOHN RUSSELL, although he may still rely on a considerable number of unalienable partisans, must be well aware that his future political position depends on the disinterested patriotism which he may exhibit during the coming Session. The larger portion of Lord PALMERSTON's late colleagues will be prepared to support his Government; and it will be for the House of Commons to take care that the policy which it deliberately prefers is not frittered away or contradicted by isolated acts of caprice or of faction.

LECTURES FOR SENATORS.

A FORTNIGHT since, the apathy which has succeeded to the bustling activity of past political life in France, was stirred into something like an interest by an article in the *Moniteur*. A few days afterwards, the news that M. DROUYN DE LHUYS had taken offence at that very article, and had retired from the Senate in consequence, resulted in what may almost be called a political sensation. What does HE mean? was a question universally asked. In fact, the gist of the manifesto referred to was a complaint, on the part of its august author, that his meaning had been seriously misunderstood. One great branch of the State has, it seems, put a very improper construction on the instrument by which its powers are defined. The "Legislator of 1852" had intended the Senate to be something quite unlike any former legislative creation. The intervals between its sessions, and not the sessions themselves, were to be its periods of labour and usefulness. Its members were to be busy during the recess in familiarizing themselves with the feelings and wants of the country; and, when assembled in Paris, their chief employment was to consist in digesting the results of their observations, and in submitting them to the EMPEROR. We are told, however, that the Senators, instead of penetrating into the hidden meanings of the Constitution, have suffered themselves to be guided by the traditions of the Chamber of Peers. They have devoted their ample vacations to amusing themselves at Baden or in the Pyrenees, and, like a mere Upper House of Parliament, they occupy their Session with debates which are never published, and with divisions which find expression in the formula, "*le Sénat ne s'oppose pas à la promulgation de la loi*." It must be confessed that these reproaches sound a little oddly in the ear of an Englishman. Among ourselves, a legislator is considered completely answerable for his own miscarriages. Even though he should prove that he had taken all conceivable probabilities into account, and had only failed through the capriciousness and mutability of human nature, he would be told that he ought to have understood human nature, and that he should have provided for all its variations. And if this harsh measure is dealt to Governments in a country like England, where novel experiments have to contend against a world of rooted habits and tenacious prejudices, it appears all the more strange that the author

of the French Constitution, with unlimited power in his hands and *table-rase* before him, should be entitled to throw the blame of an unexpected result on the submissive subject-matter of his legislation. It looks like the potter remonstrating with the clay for stubbornness and defective plasticity. No doubt we are too English to reason on the Constitution of 1852. Looked at from our insular point of view, the Senate seems to have turned out the exact sort of political body which it might have been expected to become. Composed of second or third-rate men, who have not, perhaps, the firmest confidence in the solidity of the structure of which they are an ornamental pillar—controlled by the strong hand of the Executive, while emancipated from the stress of public opinion—we should have anticipated that its members would do the least possible work on the easiest possible terms, follow the first precedent which offered itself, slumber away their Session in gorgeous liveries on purple cushions, and pass their recess in hoarding or squandering the abundant stipend by which their services are purchased.

If we were called upon ourselves to read the enigma, we confess we should put an interpretation on the lecture of the *Moniteur* different from any which it has yet received. We imagine that the writer intended to convey, by example, a hint to the non-official newspapers, that a little gentle criticism of existing institutions would not be taken amiss by their framer. It is not to be supposed that the "Legislator of 1852," in providing a complex machinery of warnings and suspensions for the control of the press, ever contemplated anything like that deep, dead silence of journalism which the great topic of peace and war has scarcely had interest enough to interrupt. He intended that newspapers should go on disputing as before, with something of the wit and eloquence of former times; but so that no revolutionary passion should be roused, that no slip of his policy should be too narrowly canvassed, no shaft of ridicule aimed at his own person, no iota of his power for an instant jeopardized. It was even hoped, perhaps, that political discussion could be so directed as always to end in a victory for the writers of the Government. In some of the Italian Churches, two pulpits stand within a short distance of each other in the nave. On certain of the higher festivals, these are ascended by a couple of preaching friars, one of whom personates the Principle of Good, and the other the Author of Evil. A controversial discussion commences between the antagonistic essences, and the reasons for and against leading a religious life are exchanged with the utmost apparent freedom. It is unnecessary to state that the Enemy of Mankind, though he makes a stout fight for it, always gets the worst in the long run; and indeed he generally terminates the proceedings by briefly recapitulating the arguments to which he has succumbed. We suspect that these well-intended histrionics represent pretty accurately the collision of arguments which the author of the organic decree on the Press was prepared to license. The explanation which accompanied that enactment stated that *bona fide* discussion of the new constitution would be allowed; but, doubtless, the advantage was always to remain with the Ministerial organs, and it would have been all the more edifying if, at the close of a dispute, the Opposition newspapers would gracefully re-state the positions of their adversaries. French journalism, however, had too much self-respect, or too little confidence in the discretion of its censors, to submit to this sort of regulation. It preferred being silenced to being superintended; and we suspect that, as soon as the conclusion of peace shall have deprived it of the opportunity which it now enjoys of indulging in a little colourless discussion, the article of the *Moniteur* will not be found to have roused it from its normal state of apathetic taciturnity.

THE PENDING NEGOTIATIONS.

THE week which has elapsed since the acceptance of the Austrian proposals by Russia has supplied few additional materials for judging of the probability of peace. It must be admitted, however, that the expectation of peace tends in some degree to realize itself. Notwithstanding all that may be justly said in favour of vigilance and preparation, the muscles cannot be kept in a state of tension when it is uncertain whether the lifted arm is, after all, to descend in a blow. Ships may be manned, and stores provided; recruits may be drilled, and contingent plans of operations discussed—the Allied Governments will be deeply cen-

surable if they neglect any of their material preparations—but the excitement which nerves men to the duty of maintaining the right in arms unavoidably subsides as soon as it becomes doubtful whether the struggle is to continue. It is the misfortune of France that, while national opinion can scarcely find a channel of expression, stock-jobbers, intriguers, and malcontents can secure organs in the press. To speculators for a rise, it matters little whether, two months hence, Russia may, or may not, have proved her willingness to fulfil her engagements. For their purposes, it is only necessary that peace should, for the moment, be considered certain, although the satisfactory progress of the negotiations may be gravely retarded by any intimation that either of the allied nations is unduly eager to terminate the war. The Austrian Cabinet has, on many occasions during the complications of the last three years, given proofs of sound judgment and of good faith which could scarcely have been anticipated from the language of its supposed organs; and there is no reason to imagine that Count Buol approves of the hints which appear in the Vienna journals, that English obstinacy offers the only impediments to a pacific solution. The undeniable readiness of England to persevere in the war must be regarded by a sagacious statesman as a motive power, which, judiciously applied, may greatly accelerate the conclusion of peace.

The benumbing effect of negotiation upon war is an unavoidable inconvenience, which becomes a serious evil only if the attempted arrangement proves to be fruitless. The armistice which will ensue on the signature of the preliminaries will undoubtedly be concluded only for a limited time; and should Russian perfidy or perversity render a definite pacification impossible, disappointment and indignation may perhaps supply a sufficient stimulus to the suspended energy of the Allies. It is not to be assumed, however, that the Cabinet of St. Petersburg intends to evade the consequences of its unexpected concession. The Russian plenipotentiaries will, not inexcusably, take every advantage which the weakness or negligence of their opponents may offer them; but they will not forget that peace, which to the Allies is but desirable, has become indispensable to themselves. Their diplomatic plans may be too bold or too fine; but there can be little doubt that they desire to win the game. The assertion that the Czar has given way out of regard to public opinion and to the interests of Europe may be taken at its just value; for the journals of St. Petersburg could not be expected to confess that another campaign was likely to end in the ruin or disruption of the Empire.

A singular statement as to the intentions of Austria, which has lately obtained circulation, is perhaps premature rather than unfounded. It has been said that, in the event of continued hostilities, the work of the Congress of Vienna was to be undone by the restoration of Poland as a barrier to Germany; and some versions even represent the King of Prussia as an accessory to the project. It is highly improbable, however, that the Government of Vienna can have committed itself to so daring a scheme. Poland still bristles with fortresses, and the army by which it is occupied holds a position rather of menace than of defence. Austria, which has so long shrunk from taking even an auxiliary part in the war, might well hesitate to place herself in the front and centre of the battle; nor is it certain that the Western Powers would have sanctioned a policy which must have altered the whole character of the struggle, and which would probably have postponed its termination. Least of all is it likely that the mediating Power, at the moment when it was urging forward peace, would formally deliberate on a scheme of internecine hostility. Yet it is not improbable that the Austrian Government may have covertly encouraged the discussion of possibilities which, even when remote, imply a formidable menace. From the commencement of the war, two extreme parties in England and throughout Europe have been urging the Allies, on the one hand, to undertake the cause of Poland, and on the other, to renounce, in formal terms, the policy which is called revolutionary. But the statesmen who conduct the war have been too prudent to listen to their advisers on either side. The reasons which may render it expedient to dispense with the use of a formidable weapon, furnish no ground for throwing it away. The more moderate supporters of the war were unwilling to excite the hopes of Poland, so long as a comparatively early termination of the contest was still probable; yet the corresponding fears which might arise in the minds of Russian statesmen were evidently advantageous to the Allies. As soon, however, as Austria

indicated an eventual intention of joining the Western Powers, the danger assumed a substantial form.

It would be difficult to cite an instance of the rupture of negotiations when belligerents have once signed preliminaries of peace; but it is not certain that the Russian acceptance of the proposed basis has been sufficiently clear and specific to enable the Allies to complete the first stage of the pacification. The difficulties which are alleged to exist respecting the Bessarabian fortress of Chotym may be confidently disregarded; yet there are still questions of the utmost importance, in connexion with the neutralization of the Black Sea, which must be settled before the contracting parties can arrive at a satisfactory understanding. It is unfortunate that the word "neutrality" should have been used as an equivalent for the widely different process of disarming within certain limits. The Allies seek to enforce from Russia, and to impose upon Turkey, a similar arrangement to that which prevails on the great lakes of America between England and the United States. If a war were unhappily to break out on the Canadian frontier, both parties would be at liberty to create armaments for warlike purposes on the inland seas, for it is only during peace that the neighbouring Governments agree to abstain from preparing materials of war; and yet, in peace, neutrality is impossible and unmeaning. It is clearly understood, however, that the Euxine is to be open to commerce, and, at the same time, that no maritime force is to occupy its waters; and the maintenance of an arsenal at Nicholaieff would be distinctly contrary to the spirit of the Austrian proposal. The purposes both of commerce and war are often served by inland ports, as well as by harbours on the seaboard. If England, for example, were bound by treaty to abandon the maritime export of salt, it would be an idle quibble to defend an evasion of the undertaking on the ground that Gloucester, which enjoys the principal portion of the trade, is an inland town on a canal. Mere verbal discussions on points of this kind ought, however, to create little embarrassment. The Russian Government must have understood a demand for the suppression of its war navy as involving the condition that ships of war should no longer be fitted out; and Nicholaieff, whether war or peace ensues, must share the fate of Sebastopol.

A far more complicated question is likely to arise with respect to the forts on the Circassian coast, and the vessels which are necessary to their maintenance. Having received neither assistance nor promises from the mountain tribes, the Allies are, strictly speaking, at liberty to leave them to their fate; nor will their interests in any case form a prominent subject of consideration. But it must not be forgotten that Europe also has interests in the control of the Euxine coasts. The dominion of Russia over the Caucasus has neither been established in fact, nor recognised by public law; and although, for more than twenty years, all foreign commerce has been rigorously excluded from Circassia, it still remains uncertain by what title the Russian cruisers interfered with the movements of foreign vessels. If the Czar thought proper to be at war with the Circassian population, he might, perhaps, justify in law any blockade which he had the means of practically enforcing; but no such determination was ever notified to foreign Governments, and, so far as England is concerned, it is enough to say that no announcement of a Circassian blockade has ever been published in the *London Gazette*. The Court of St. Petersburg could not, indeed, profess to treat as enemies those whom it claimed as subjects; but the blockade was scarcely more intelligible when it was represented as a defensive cordon for the purposes of customs' regulations, since a line of custom-houses is not ordinarily situated outside the territory for which duties are to be levied, or prohibitions enforced. It was not thought worth the while of any foreign Power to dispute the assertion of Russian predominance on the eastern shores of the Black Sea; but a definitive treaty can scarcely recognise an anomalous arrangement which excludes Western commerce from a large portion of Central Asia. If any concession is made to Russia on this point, it will be desirable to stipulate for the maintenance of certain commercial ports, and also for the security of the great road from Trebizond and Erzeroum to the East. It may be found impossible altogether to deny the necessity of precautions against the inroads of mountain warriors, who, with all their chivalrous qualities, have not yet acquired an implicit respect for the property of their neighbours in the lowlands.

The difficulties which may arise in the course of the

negotiations, with respect to Kars and Bomarsund, have been discussed on former occasions. With good faith on both sides, a solution will not be impracticable; but it is highly desirable that the main points at issue should be settled before the adoption of the preliminaries. In the mean time, it is not desirable that Englishmen should adopt a tone of suspicion or of insult. It is possible to be vigilant without a display of offensive suspicion; and if Russia is not in earnest in wishing for peace, there can be no advantage in giving her a plausible pretext for a rupture. The influence of a dignified and temperate bearing on the feelings and policy of our own Allies is not less important. Intriguers ought to have no cause for suggesting the existence of differences between England and France, or between the Western Powers and Austria. No politician who has watched the transactions of the last three years will be greatly surprised if the present hopes of peace should be disappointed; but it is for many reasons most desirable to take care that the fault shall neither rest, nor seem to rest, with ourselves.

THE IDENTITY OF JOURNALISM.

"SUCH a peace will be a suitable termination to the long epoch of a life devoted, with but little support from political party or popular sympathy, to thwarting, counteracting, and overthrowing the designs of Russia, to frustrating and foiling her at every point with a firmness not unworthy of the great founder of the liberties of Europe, whose name has just been illustrated by the pen of the most eloquent of our historians."

We picture to ourselves the mingled feelings of amusement and disdain with which the noble Viscount at the head of Her Majesty's Government must have perused this magnificent passage, in which he finds his name "illustrated by the pen of the most eloquent of our journalists." The sentiments of the "great founder of the liberties of Europe," when receiving the devoted homage of the nobles with whose secret plots against his person and his throne he was intimately acquainted, furnish no doubt a pretty exact parallel to the gratification which Lord PALMERSTON must experience at finding the foreign policy of his life the theme of a panegyric in the *Times*. Applause is rarely displeasing, but when it flows from the pen of the most hostile and persistent of one's detractors, a very stoic could hardly repress a passing sensation of triumph. We certainly do not grudge Lord PALMERSTON his victory over the most inveterate of his assailants; and it is not, therefore, for the purpose of disparaging the subject of the eulogium that we submit the above singular paragraph to the consideration of our readers.

We make no apology for devoting so large a space in our columns to the discussion of the theory and practice of journalism. Proposing to ourselves to examine with a critical eye the principal elements of our social, political, and moral condition, we find that, whether for good or for evil, journalism is the influence which is at once the most potent and the least understood. A man who uses spectacles does not think it unimportant to ascertain whether the lenses are convex or concave—whether they magnify or diminish—whether they distort the vision or reverse the image. But the same man will take his look at the world through the morning paper over his breakfast-table, without even wiping the glasses—still less dreaming of testing their refractive powers. He read the *Times* yesterday, and he will read it again to-morrow—the objects which yesterday appeared straight, to-day seem strangely crooked—the men who but now were pigmies, assume the proportion of giants—edifices which lately stood erect now appear bottom upwards. Yet how few are there among the "sixty thousand" who reflect that the transmutation is due to an alteration in the medium, and not to a change in the object. For one man who will remark, "How the *Times* has changed," a hundred will exclaim, "Bless me, how Lord PALMERSTON has grown." Our glasses are changed from green to black, and we are astonished to see how the grass is blighted. Unfortunately, the rest of Europe also puts on our spectacles, and the reputation of England is viewed, like the sun in an eclipse, through a smoked telescope.

Short as is the memory of the public in such matters, the world can hardly have forgotten the systematic war which the *Times* so long waged against Lord PALMERSTON. When not merely his political position, but the foreign policy which he represented, was at stake, the loudest and most vehement

of his assailants was the journal which now eulogizes the system it so lately denounced. Let us not be misunderstood—there is nothing strange or inconsistent in the conduct of those who approve the course which the PREMIER has pursued during the present struggle, and who yet dissented from the principles by which his policy was governed in times of peace. There are, doubtless, those who think that the energy and vigour which may be usefully expended in war, may be inconveniently exhibited during peace, in needless and fruitless enterprises. But it is remarkable that the journal which was the first and fiercest in its denunciations of the “meddlesome and mischievous” PALMERSTON should now pronounce his past policy not unworthy of the great founder of the liberties of Europe. The *Times* modestly admits that “during the epoch of a long life,” Lord PALMERSTON derived “little support from public sympathy;” and any one who has had the misfortune to be the object of the unceasing and inveterate hostility of that journal will admit that the fact is not over-stated. Those who remember the discussion on the PACIFICCO affair, when the *Times* seized the opportunity of striking a blow at the whole Palmerstonian policy throughout Europe, will readily acknowledge that, in so far as the “leading journal” represents public opinion, the noble Viscount did not, at that critical point, receive much “support from popular sympathy.” There is at least one useful lesson to be learnt from this singular revulsion of “sympathy,” which may administer consolation to many a victim of “leading journalism.” It is something to know that detraction, however widely circulated, is neither omnipotent nor immortal. If it were possible for a man to be destroyed by fine writing, Lord PALMERSTON must long ago have fallen beneath the attacks of the *Times*.

We have said that we do not propose to discuss the merits of the policy which our contemporary lately condemned, and now extols. It will be time enough, when peace is concluded, to examine the principles which ought to govern our relations with Europe; and we do not attempt, therefore, to pronounce an opinion on the question whether the *Times* was right when it attacked, or is right now when it praises, the foreign policy to which Lord PALMERSTON has “devoted the long epoch of a life.” All that is quite clear is that it cannot be right in both cases. The fact to which we pray the attention of our readers is, that we find the *Times*, within a few years—we had almost said months—approving and condemning the same system, and in each case probably with equal influence over the public mind. Will not any reasonable man ask himself, “What is this *Times*, which told me but yesterday that Lord PALMERSTON’s policy was one of mischievous meddling and idle anticipation of imaginary dangers, and to-day would have me believe that the self-same policy was not unworthy of the great founder of the liberties of Europe?” Will he not ask, “Why am I to take the word of the *Times* for either statement, and how can I take it for both?” But the marvel is, that, in fact, if the public are only allowed a few days’ interval between these contrary assertions, nine readers out of ten find no difficulty in accepting both.

This singular state of things, both as regards the public and the *Times* itself, is to be accounted for by what an eminent man has called the *we-gotism* of journalism. The greater part of the influence and of the mischievousness of newspaper writing depends on the absence of personal identity. The just censure which has been passed on those metaphysicians who have propounded sceptical views on the subject of personal identity, is founded on the undoubted truth, that the sentiment of moral responsibility hangs upon the conviction of identity. No man feels remorse about an act, except in so far as he is conscious of having himself done it. Now, the *Times*, having no personal identity, is not amenable to the tribunal of moral responsibility. It enjoys all the personal and spiritual immunities which have been attributed to a corporation. The journalist who writes to-day does not violate his moral nature by contradicting, not what he himself, but some one else, said yesterday. This would be all very well if the effect on the popular mind bore any relation to the true nature of the influence to which the public bows. But the fact is exactly the reverse—the journal has the irresponsibility of a crowd, but all the authority of an individual. If Mr. SMITH tells us that a thing is white, Mr. BROWN that it is grey, and Mr. JONES that it is black, we do not believe all three—we must choose between SMITH, BROWN, and JONES, and we do in fact select one whose authority we prefer to the rest. But if SMITH,

BROWN, and JONES expand the same assertion into leading article, and address us as in the columns of the *Times*, we no longer feel compelled to exercise a preference where the authority seems one and the same; and the result is, that sixty thousand people, quietly or furiously, as the case may be, accept the conviction that one and the same thing is white, black, and grey. What the effect of such a state of mind must be on the intelligence and morality of the community, it is not necessary to discuss.

We have proposed to ourselves to analyse some of the conditions under which journalism acts upon the public mind, and some of the results which it is calculated to produce. Meanwhile, we commend to the consideration of the thoughtful among our readers the danger to which a highly civilized community is exposed by the predominant influence exercised by journalism, which wants that first security for public and private morality which is derived from the consciousness of personal identity and individual responsibility.

RAILWAY SHAREHOLDERS.

IN the multitude of counsellors there is wisdom. Acting on this principle, railway shareholders have begun to gather themselves together, in order to discuss the causes and the remedies of the present depreciation of their property. Never did any class of men stand in greater need of prudent counsel, but we have always doubted whether public meetings were not an exception to SOLOMON’S maxim; and the assembly convened on Tuesday last by Mr. MALINS has not done much to increase our confidence. It was called together to hear a plan propounded which promised to arrest further depreciation, and to place railway property in a sound and healthy condition. This was the very thing that proprietors had long desired and despaired of. They ought to have flocked to the London Tavern by thousands; but, whether from lack of faith in Mr. MALINS, or from other causes, the audience was limited to some fifty or a hundred expectant listeners. But a good plan is none the worse for not being appreciated by anticipation, and shareholders who were not present at the meeting may like to know what the device is by which they are to be restored to prosperity.

Mr. MALINS is a gentleman who has a happy talent for making speeches that are very long without being very tiresome. He slips along from one branch of a subject to another, from history to speculation, from cause to effect, with such easy transitions, that it is not till you examine his oration in the morning papers that you find he has spoken of everything in the world except the subject of his speech. This peculiarity makes it easy for us to condense into very minute compass his suggested plan for the restoration of railway prosperity. Establish a society, to be called the “Associated Railway Proprietors”—that is the sum and substance of the scheme. What the society is to do, and how it is to set to work, we are not informed. We are told, indeed, that its weight and influence are to effect a change, whenever required, in the management of the properties in which the members are interested. At first, we imagined that this pointed at changes in the personal constitution of Railway Boards, and that the Association was to exercise a supreme control over the crowns and territories of railway dominions, like that once assumed by the Holy See over the kingdoms of Europe. But as it is emphatically laid down that the new body is to act in co-operation with directors, and by no means to engage in hostility with them, we suppose that our guess at its intended functions must have been mistaken. Throughout the whole of the chairman’s address, we can find but one other hint of the duties which the Society is expected to perform. Shareholders, says Mr. MALINS, ought to exercise all the Parliamentary interest they can, and to prevent the reckless ruin of their property. From this questionable advice he passes to the consolatory assurance, that, if the Association is sufficiently numerous, and if its affairs are conducted with prudence and discretion, railway property will soon be placed upon a fair basis. Does this mean that the Associated Proprietors are to become a sort of Election standing Committee and to enter into competition with the Carlton and the Reform in the special interest of the Railway Companies? We have not much faith in the hypothesis ourselves, but we throw it out as the only idea which we are able to sug-

gest of the contemplated action of the mysterious Society which it is proposed to constitute.

Nor is more light to be gained from the explanations of the other speakers, who may be presumed to enjoy the confidence of the great originator of the scheme. Mr. MITCHEL moved the first resolution, which declared the expediency of forming the proposed association. He stated that its objects should be to protect railway property, and restore its legitimate value—to promote the restriction, and, where practicable, the closing of capital accounts, the suppression of unremunerative tariffs, and the practice of economy in management. In other words, the Society is to do all that forms the duty of boards of directors. How this is to be done without collision with the boards, or what chance there is of its being more effectually performed by an association of shareholders in rival lines than by the governing body of each, Mr. MITCHEL does not condescend to inform us. The ludicrous history of the Administrative Reform Association might teach any one that it is not enough to say that reform is needed, and to create a Society whose professed object is to effect it. Shareholders are under a great delusion, if they imagine that the mischiefs which have grown out of the negligence and dishonesty of years are to be cured by the panacea of an Association, without a definite aim, or an intelligible course of action. Long continued vigilance, and a steady preference of the permanent interests of their undertakings to the mere market price of their shares, are the only means by which proprietors of railway stock can hope to retrieve the errors of the past. If they do their part, they will gradually succeed in infusing into their directors the honesty and prudence which have in so many instances been wanting; but the recovery must be slow, and any attempt to hurry it on by empirical schemes, like that of Mr. MALINS, can but end in renewed disappointment. Follies and frauds will have their retribution, and it is vain to fly from the NEMESIS which patient amendment alone can appease.

If any further argument were needed to warn the holders of railway property against the visionary scheme that has been propounded, the ignorance displayed by its advocates of the real causes of the existing depression would be enough to supply it. The origin of the evil, according to Mr. MALINS, is not the ruinous system of extensions, that have swallowed up so many millions of capital, but the unremunerative rates at which trains are run. Railway managers, in calculating the cost at which they can afford to work, have neglected, it is said, to add interest on capital to the 50 per cent. commonly allowed for working expenses. They have therefore fixed the tariff below the fair and reasonable rate. Nothing could be more absurd than such a statement. The cost of working a train is an essential element in determining on the expediency of running it or not, but it has nothing whatever to do with the rates of charge. Directors will not fix, and ought not to fix, their tariffs below the most remunerative scale. It is their business, and we have no doubt their practice also, to discover, as well as they can, what rates bring in the largest profits. It is very likely that there have been some errors in this respect, but we believe they have more often been committed by charging too much than by asking too little. However this may be, it is certain that no company has ever been guilty of the folly of wilfully diminishing its profits because they were too far in excess of its expenses. The notion that the amount of gain is entirely within the command of the managers, and that they can indefinitely increase it by an arbitrary addition to their fares, is worthy of the almost extinct race of Protectionists, but sadly out of place in the mouth of a Railway Reformer. Mr. MITCHEL, however, followed the Chairman's lead upon this topic. The public could not, he argued, do without railways, and it was the companies' own fault that they gave too much and took too little. Railway proprietors are, it seems, martyrs to the obligations which they render to the public. Their losses are the fruits of their generosity, and they have only to drive harder bargains, and they will get *bonâ fide* dividends which may rival the fictitious profits of the days of HUDSON. Such are the doctrines of the guides who offer to lead the Railway interest to assured prosperity.

But the increase of tariffs was not the only remedy suggested. One gentleman was for handing over the whole of the railways to Government administration. Another suggested that the working should be farmed out to small associations, at a guaranteed rate of interest—a very excellent scheme if contractors could be found to undertake the speculation at a satisfactory rental, and to give unquestionable security. A

third attributed their disasters to mistaken legislation, and a fourth to the employment of underpaid directors. To do the meeting justice, we ought to state that Mr. VANCE protested against the theory that the highest rate of fares was necessarily the most remunerative; whilst Mr. HEREPATH offered the only practical suggestion that the expenditure should be reduced by diminishing the number of trains. By economy in this respect, the Irish railways, with everything against them except the absence of competition, have been enabled to pay dividends far above the average English percentage. We hope we have said enough to show what reliance is to be placed on the Railway Proprietors' Association. One word of advice in conclusion to the possessors of shares. Get honest, business-like, and economical managers. The task is not so difficult as some suppose. If directors have hitherto regarded the fictitious more than the real value of your property, it is no less true that shareholders have been well content to have it so. Seek the right men, and treat them liberally; and you will not always be disappointed. Above all things, attend to your own interests, and eschew Proprietors' Associations.

"CROWNER'S QUEST."

CAREFUL as we ought to be against hasty generalization and the headlong habit of condemning an office for its occasional abuses, we may yet be thankful for any opportunity of reviewing, without prejudice, social arrangements which seem to have outlived their original purpose. The office of Coroner is now on its trial. Several circumstances combine in raising the question whether the office, as such, is worth retaining. The platitude which proclaims the reverence due to Anglo-Saxon institutions covers many an abuse. Trial by jury itself is, in many cases, suited to a primitive state of society, rather than to a social condition like our own; and it is unquestionable that the office of Coroner has degenerated a good deal from its original purpose. That purpose was to interpose a check to the concealment of violent death, and the officer invested with this duty was of high rank. It was necessary that he should possess a knight's fee—that is, that he should be of sufficient social dignity to be able to resist the danger of collusion with a lawless set of feudal lords; and he was to be elected by the freeholders, as the representative of the shire against local influences. He represented the Crown—and hence his name—in times when assizes and the administration of justice generally were very different from their present state. He was reimbursed his official expenses; but his social standing placed him far above the necessity of living on the proceeds of his official duties. The fact that the Lord Chief Justice is the official Grand Coroner of England, points to a conception of the office very different from its existing tenure. We assent to all that is involved in the pompous enumeration of a coroner's dignities, which Mr. WAKLEY is in the habit of enlarging upon; but the retort upon coroners of our day, who magnify their office, is easy. In Norman times, it would have been difficult to detect a coroner in an *Emeritus* apothecary, or in an attorney unblessed, or overcharged, with a country practice. A coroner was useful, and indeed necessary, in times when all sorts of influences combined to make the detection of murder difficult, and when justice moved with tardy or unwilling steps; but in these days of police, sessions, assizes, and active magistrates, the necessity has passed away. A well organized police system supersedes the coroner's function.

That function is to hold an inquisition of death. The wisdom of our ancestors established another safeguard for life in the office of the parochial Searchers, which has only become obsolete in our own time. The medical certificate before burial has very properly replaced the hateful and useless office of parish searcher, and that of coroner is not unlikely to follow it. The field of his legitimate inquiries being very narrow, he is, of course, tempted to enlarge it. Essentially, it is of a preliminary character, but in practice it becomes judicial—so much so, that the *Times* speaks of the coroner as of an alleged criminal's "judge." His function is to deal with facts rather than with individuals. He is to investigate the cause of death, and he stands more in the relation of *prochain ami* to the deceased man than as the vindicator of justice to the law and the community. In practice, however, the coroner sits as advocate, detective officer, medical referee, and police magistrate, all in one. The objections to his anomalous exercise of authority are

obvious. First, the inquest entails unnecessary expenses on parties on whom suspicion lights; for a suspected individual, such as PALMER, is obliged to employ legal assistance both at the inquest and before the magistrates. Further, the coroner is exposed to unnecessary, and in some cases—we are not speaking of Rugeley—to unfair suspicion, arising from the *ex parte* nature of the inquiry; while the county is put to needless expense in the double attendance of witnesses at the inquest and before the magistrates. Again, the panel of the coroner's jury, consisting of the immediate neighbours of the deceased—often taken from persons of limited capacity and unbounded prejudice—is unsatisfactory. A court is held, without due safeguards to the dignity of justice, in the most improper places, and without any limits or rules of evidence, before a functionary who is not bound to have the least acquaintance with law. This public-house inquiry, conducted by the united wisdom of the first sixteen or twenty small shopkeepers who can be brought together, under the discretionary powers of an official whose remuneration is in proportion to the extravagance of the time expended in the investigation, and to the irrelevance of the inquiries he may think proper to institute, conduces neither to the sobriety of justice nor to the rights of the suspected parties.

Still more serious are the collisions between coroners and police magistrates. In extreme cases, as lately in the Foley-place murder, the coroner's so-called authority is summarily set aside by a police-inspector; or, as last week in Mr. WAUGH's case, his claims to do the magistrate's work go for nothing. An official who, in the last resort, can only whine about being taken no notice of, and who cannot enforce his sounding appeals for jurisdiction, soon becomes contemptible. Justice cannot afford that any of its officers should become a laughing-stock—still less can it endure an unseemly wrangle between the police and the coroner in the presence of the dead. Nor is public decorum sufficiently consulted when a *post-mortem* examination, under the coroner's warrant, is conducted with the revolting indecency which attended a recent display, on an ale-house table, connected with PALMER's alleged crimes.

Moreover, as we have just seen, the social position of the coroner is not such as to render impossible highly reprehensible communications between a suspected person and the official whose duty it is to hold an inquisition of death. That familiar intercourse existed between PALMER and Mr. WARD, the Staffordshire coroner, is sufficient to throw doubts on the propriety of retaining an office which is susceptible of such grave abuses, and such possible obstacles to justice, as are suggested by the Rugeley case. That a police magistrate could permit a correspondence, or receive presents of game, from a person in PALMER's position, is simply inconceivable. Yet PALMER does not deem it incompatible with WARD's office to give him information which he had acquired by the most scandalous means, and which he notes as "strictly private and confidential." That is to say, an accused person imagines that he can treat the coroner as his confidential adviser, and he points out to a judge—not "his judge," as the *Times* says—how to conduct the inquiry so as to exonerate himself. It may, indeed, be said that no substantial harm is done, since the inquest goes for nothing when a case is in magisterial hands; but the office is irretrievably injured, and an office which at the best is useless, and which at the worst may be abused to the prejudice of justice, is doomed.

We have already hinted at the impropriety of the still existing mode of paying the coroner. His is the only judicial office which depends upon fluctuating fees. In all other departments of public judicature, the fee system is abolished—and this with palpable benefit to official independence as well as to the public purse. The simple fact—Mr. WARD's case shows it—is that a coroner is not regarded as above the suspicion of being bribeable. The mode of appointment is equally objectionable. A scandalous and expensive election—and such contests have occurred in our times—is in itself a disqualification extending over the whole tenure of the office; nor is a folk-mote the exact method by which to judge of judicial qualifications. That all the abuses formerly attendant upon the election of county members still remain in the mode of choosing county coroners, is a curious illustration of our slowness in removing hereditary abuses. The powers of a county court judge are nothing to those theoretically possessed by a coroner; and yet not a single safeguard which attends the appointment of one is extended to the other.

In a word, so long as the coroner confines himself to his strict duty in holding an inquisition of death, his labours are useless; and when, as is generally the case, he digresses into an accusation or indictment, his function is impertinent and intrusive. He is badly elected, and badly paid—his jurisdiction is vague and indefinite—his attempts to maintain authority are not enforced. There is no guarantee for his learning or impartiality; nor is he, by social position or general confidence, sufficiently removed from the suspicion of thwarting that justice whose minister, after a sort, he is. He and his jury represent the barbarism of a social state which has passed away; and the inquiries over which he presides contribute little to substantial justice, and less to the dignity of its functions. We are far from saying that there are not many coroners who are men of the highest honour and incorruptible justice; but the possibility of a judicial office being held by such a person as Mr. WARD seems likely to be proved, is a serious social anomaly. We purposely abstain from connecting these remarks with any reference to PALMER's guilt or innocence; but in justice to him, and in justice also to the public, we cannot but feel that the Rugeley inquests have been of little real service in eliciting truth. What truth is established would have been better attained by another sort of investigation, conducted under other auspices; and we should then have been spared the spectacle of seeing the public mind equally divided between an unreasoning estimate of evidence as against the accused, and an unreasoning but not unnatural distrust of the authority which has unquestionably superseded a better constituted and more responsible court. In spite of the calm wisdom of Mr. Sergeant WILKINS, we believe that the Rugeley inquests have done no substantial harm to PALMER. Much more is it to be feared that the mode in which they have been conducted, and the results to which, in at least one case, they have arrived, will, by a not dishonourable reaction in the public mind, create a prejudice in his favour. These inquiries, however, will have important indirect consequences; for they will lead to investigations into the expediency of retaining so unfit a tribunal, which will do as much for justice as the discovery of the mysterious deaths of the two PALMERS and COOK.

A PARALLEL.

THE Administrative Reform Association has announced by advertisement that it will hold a public meeting this afternoon, to consider the Fall of Kars. We are informed that the Association intends to point out the similarity of its own fate to that of the Armenian fortress; and we understand that it attributes its misfortunes to the inexplicable jealousy of a great personage resident not a hundred miles from Blackfriars Bridge. The Association, it appears, was organized in the early part of last summer by the exertions of a gentleman well acquainted with the habits of the Oriental races. Its defences consisted of one large fortification in the metropolis, together with a system of outlying works in the chief provincial towns; but its main reliance was on a regular supply of leading articles from Printing-House-square. Owing, however, to the fact that the leaders of the Association had received their commissions from themselves, or to their having no commissions at all, the representative of public opinion in Printing-House-square soon began to manifest the utmost ill-will towards their proceedings, and rewarded a gallant and protracted resistance to corruption with systematic and heartless neglect. The most urgent appeals were left unanswered, and we are compelled to state that the Association was not supplied with a single leading article between the months of August and January. It is needless to say that these brave men were reduced to the most fearful straits. They were compelled to support themselves on literary effusions of their own manufacture. It is even reported that they were driven to circulate pamphlets by Mr. R. R. R. R. MOORE; and when our readers reflect that R. is for the dog, they will appreciate the extremities of the Association, and the sad resemblance of its condition to the state of Kars. At length, after patiently suffering until their numbers had dwindled to a Committee of two, the Administrative Reformers were fairly starved-out for want of leading articles, and, a fortnight since, they surrendered at discretion to a bloated aristocracy. Incredible as it may seem, their unfortunate end had no sooner begun to attract public sympathy, than a leadin

article was despatched to them, in which the Association was described as too good for this world, while shameful ridicule was poured on the expedients by which it had attempted to mitigate the consequences of a cruel abandonment.

It is generally understood that the successful besieging army has permitted Mr. W. S. LINDSAY to go about his business, on the ground of the humane activity which he displayed during the siege in succouring by his speeches the cause of Redtape.

PHOTOGRAPHY.

II.

IN a former article, we gave a brief sketch of the progress of this art, and noticed some of the processes at present in use. We will now examine them a little more in detail, in order that our readers may obtain a clearer notion of the theory upon which they are based; and we will take first the collodion process, as being, perhaps, the most important of all, or at any rate the one most practised by amateurs.

We have seen that the first thing to be done is to combine iodide of silver with the collodion or ethereal solution of pyroxiline or gun cotton. Iodide of silver may be easily formed, but a direct combination of it with collodion would not answer the purpose, for the former being insoluble in that substance, it would be impossible to obtain anything more than a *mechanical* admixture. The iodide could not be incorporated with it so completely and perfectly as it would be if the collodion dissolved it.

The difficulty is met in this way. The solution of an iodide salt—iodide of ammonium or of potassium, for example—is mixed with the collodion; and this, forming a clear fluid, is poured upon a perfectly clean glass plate, the ether rapidly evaporated, and when the collodion is nearly set, it is immersed in a weak solution of nitrate of silver—or perhaps, to speak more correctly, *nitrate of the oxide of silver*. The following chemical change then takes place:—The nitric acid and oxygen leave the silver and combine with the ammonium or potassium, forming nitrate of ammonia, or potash. These salts are dissolved in the water, and have no further effect on the process—the silver combines with the iodine, which the ammonium or potassium has quitted—and this remains quite equally diffused throughout the collodion. It will be readily seen that, by use, the quantity of nitrate will be constantly diminishing, being replaced by nitrate of ammonia, or potash; but in effect so small a quantity of silver is abstracted upon each occasion that one bath will serve for a great number of pictures before it becomes exhausted.

Immediately on removal from the bath, and while the plate is wet, it is placed in the camera; and we now have the conditions before mentioned as most favourable to the decomposition of the iodide of silver—namely, a combination of it with organic matter, and the presence of moisture and nitrate of silver. After an exposure sufficient to commence the decomposition of the iodide—that is, to render its combination with the silver less stable than it was, but without producing any visible effect, not the slightest trace of a picture being perceptible—the plate is treated with some reducing substance or developer, those usually employed being a mixture of pyrogallic and acetic acids, or one of the proto-salts of iron. The effect of this is to separate completely the iodine from the silver, where the light has acted upon it—the latter being deposited either as a black powder, when pyrogallic acid is used, or, with the proto-salts of iron, as a powder having somewhat of the colour and lustre of silver.

That the change produced by the light and developer is an actual separation of the iodine or chlorine from the silver, and the reduction of the latter to the metallic state, appears from a recent investigation of MM. Davanne and Girard, the result of which they have communicated to the *Société Française de la Photographie*. The object of their researches was to ascertain the cause of the fading sometimes observable in positive prints; and they found that, when a print had been taken upon paper prepared with chloride of silver, after it had been properly fixed and washed, not a trace of chlorine could be discovered in it beyond that which was originally present in the materials of the paper.

When, by the action of the developer, the picture has made its appearance, and has been brought to the proper degree of intensity, the iodide of silver, not acted upon, is removed by a solvent which does not affect the reduced silver. Hyposulphite of soda, or a weak solution of cyanide of potassium is used for this purpose, and the plate being washed and dried, and protected by a proper varnish, is complete.

The paper processes are the same in principle. Let us take the calotype as an example. The process resembles the collodion in this respect, that, it being impossible to spread an even surface of iodide of silver on the paper, the latter is first floated upon a bath of iodide of potassium, and, after drying, on a solution of nitrate of silver—when the chemical change above described takes place, and the paper becomes covered with an even surface of iodide of silver. Another method is to dissolve iodide of silver in iodide of potassium, it being very soluble in that substance, and to wash the surface of the paper with this solution. Upon being dried, the iodide of silver is deposited upon the surface of the paper. In both

these processes all the soluble salts are washed out, leaving the paper covered with an even coating of iodide of silver, and, prepared in this way it may be kept for an indefinite time if it is secluded from the light.

But, as we have seen, it would possess too little sensitiveness. We want the moisture and the nitrate of silver; moreover, the organic matter of the paper has not such an energetic effect as collodion. In order, however, that we may have a sensitive surface, which need not be used *immediately* on its preparation, we are obliged to sacrifice one of the accelerating agents, namely, moisture; but to place the silver compound in other respects in as favourable a condition as possible for decomposition by light, the surface is washed over, or, as it is called, *sensitized*, with a weak aqueous solution of nitrate of silver, acetic and gallic acids, and then dried. After sensitizing, the paper will keep for twenty-four hours, and, under favourable circumstances, three or four days. Hence, for taking landscapes, it is invaluable; though, for portraits, it is inapplicable, because the time of exposure is necessarily longer than is required with collodion. The picture, when taken, requires, like the collodion, development, but this may be deferred for several hours; the reducing solution is the same as that used to sensitize the paper, but it is made considerably stronger. After development, the undecomposed iodide of silver is removed by hyposulphite of soda, and the paper is washed and dried. It is obvious that the picture thus produced will be a negative—that is, everything will be reversed. The lights will be dark, and the darks light, and that which in nature was on the right side of the picture will appear in the photograph on the left; but from this negative any number of positives may be printed, in which everything will appear exactly as it is in nature. All that is necessary is to render the negative sufficiently transparent by means of white wax, and the positives are printed from it as from the collodion plate.

Mention was made in our former paper of the different chemical action of the various coloured rays when separated by the prism, pointed out by Scheele in 1777. Further investigations have proved that the greatest chemical effect takes place *outside* the spectrum, and that in fact the photographic phenomena are not produced by the visible rays, or rays of light properly so called, but by rays which produce no effect upon the eye, and which possess a greater degree of refrangibility than the luminous ones. To these rays the name *actinic* has been given. It is found that in the spectrum, silver salts are reduced outside the violet, or most refrangible ray, and that this effect diminishes as we proceed downwards through the different colours, until, in the yellow, it ceases altogether. Now if light be transmitted through a yellow medium, the yellow ray alone, and not any other possessed of a different degree of refrangibility, will pass through; and this is true not only with respect to the visible, but to the actinic rays also. Hence light which has passed through glass, or any other medium of a yellow colour, exercises no decomposing influence upon the various sensitive photographic compounds.

Were it not for this, it would be next to impossible to practise the art of photography. For the various manipulations required in the preparation of the sensitive surface, and in the development of the picture, could not be performed unless the operator could see what he was about; and yet if *all* kinds of light affected the silver compounds equally, it would be necessary to conduct these operations in absolute darkness. But the knowledge of the phenomenon just noticed enables the photographer, by allowing no light to enter his room but that which has passed through a yellow medium, to conduct all his operations without danger of their being injured.

In the account we have given of the progress of photography, we have incidentally mentioned the *camera*. This, as well as the photogenic compounds, has undergone considerable modification and improvement since its first application to this art. Previously to that time it was little better than a toy, and quite inadequate to meet the requirements of the photographer. He has not only, however, called to his assistance the science of chemistry, but also that of optics, and constant attempts have been made to remedy the defects which its use in photography soon showed to exist in the old instrument. Amongst the desiderata, we may mention first, that the joints of the box of the camera should be so accurately fitted as perfectly to exclude all extraneous light, and that it should be so contrived that the sensitive surface can be placed in, and removed from, the camera without the light impinging upon it; and we may also add, that for taking landscapes, lightness and portability are of great importance.

As may easily be imagined, the difficulties that here presented themselves were soon overcome by a little mechanical ingenuity and perseverance, but the main obstacle in obtaining an *absolutely accurate* copy of natural objects lay in the imperfections of the lens. All who recollect the portraits that were taken in the earlier stages of the art will remember the distortions always more or less observable, and which frequently entirely destroyed the likeness. Considerable pains have been taken to remedy this defect, and great improvements have been made in the manufacture of lenses, though much remains to be done before we have a perfect lens. The lenses used in photography may be divided into two kinds, *single and double*—the former being used chiefly for landscape, and the latter for portraits and small objects.

The single lens consists of a meniscus, rendered achromatic by being composed of a double convex lens of crown glass, and a double concave one of flint glass. But without the contrivance which will be presently noticed, it would be impossible to obtain a clear and distinct image with this; for the curves of the lens being the segments of a sphere—the only curve that it has yet been found possible to grind a lens to—the outer edge will refract the light more than the centre, and the rays falling on the latter will be converged to a more distant point than those which impinge upon the former. Rays of light, also, which fall obliquely upon the lens, will be converged to a point situated in a plane nearer to the lens than those to which rays falling more directly upon it will converge. The only method of remedying these defects is to sacrifice the quantity of light to the distinctness of the image. A diaphragm, perforated in the centre with a hole much smaller than the aperture of the lens (or, as it is termed, a *stop*), is placed at a short distance in front of the latter. By this means a great proportion of the rays which would fall obliquely on the lens are intercepted, and the picture is also formed principally by those passing through the centre. It is obvious that, with this arrangement, the time of exposure must be greater than if the stop could be dispensed with, and on this account the single lens is but little used in taking portraits. By means of the combination of two achromatic lenses of different curvatures, one plano-convex, and the other double-convex, the aberrations of one are corrected by the other, and a stop is unnecessary. Thus the whole of the light falling on the surface of the interior lens may be made available.

It is obvious that very great accuracy is required in grinding and polishing the lenses. The demands which photography has made upon this branch of industry have induced manufacturers to devote an immense amount of skill and perseverance to it; and the result has been, that it is now easy to procure a lens which, though not perfect, will enable us to obtain most beautiful and accurate pictures.

Having given a slight outline of the progress and present state of Photography, we will, in conclusion, say a few words to those who contemplate practising this fascinating art. It will have been seen to what a great extent it is indebted to science for its discovery and development, and how important scientific knowledge must be to a clear understanding of its theories. We would therefore strongly urge every one who desires to become a good photographer to make himself acquainted with the principles of chemistry; for, though not absolutely essential to the successful production of a photographic picture, it will be found invaluable in overcoming the difficulties usually experienced by a beginner, and in enabling the practised photographer to understand and keep pace with the improvements that are constantly being introduced to his notice. We would also remind him that photography is an *art*, and that to produce a photographic picture which shall be pleasing, or which will even be recognised as a true representation of nature, some knowledge of the pictorial art is indispensable. We may make a picture which may in reality be an accurate copy of the objects portrayed, but which, from a want of artistic skill in the selection or arrangement of the subject, will neither appear pleasing to the eye, nor be regarded as a faithful copy of what it is intended to represent.

With a sufficient knowledge of chemistry and pictorial effect, and a certain degree of neatness and dexterity in manipulation—naturally possessed by many, and to be acquired by a little perseverance by most—no one can, if he follow the directions contained in any of the numerous and valuable practical works which exist on the subject, fail of success. But let the beginner never forget that there are few things—and certainly photography is not one of them—that do not require both patience and perseverance. He must not, therefore, be discouraged by a few failures at the outset, for, if he will steadily persevere, he will soon be amply repaid for all his trouble.

MARTIAL LAW.

WE have seen with deep regret the result of a court-martial lately held on Lieutenant Dennehy, for cowardice, alleged to have been shown by him at the attack on Kinburn. The unhappy man was convicted and sentenced to death, but his sentence has been commuted into transportation for life. We have no reason to doubt the justice of the conclusion at which the court arrived in the first instance. We must take it as proved that Lieutenant Dennehy behaved in a cowardly manner on the occasion in question; but the punishment which he is now to undergo is surely altogether unsuited to his offence. The 19th section of the Mutiny Act prescribes death as the penalty for a great variety of offences, and the 20th section gives a court-martial the power of altering the sentence to transportation or penal servitude for any term not less than fourteen years. We cannot but think that the persons who framed this enactment must have had very false notions as to the nature of punishment. They seem to us to have confounded together two very dissimilar objects—that of producing a strong temporary effect, and that of creating a less marked permanent impression. The requirements of war are necessarily stern. That a man should be shot for sleeping at his post, or for showing momentary irresolution or insubordination, may be perfectly right; but the only justification for such severity is to be found in the absolute

necessity of preventing the spread of disorders so contagious. The infliction of a terrible punishment, constituting at once a salutary warning and an awful spectacle, is the obvious—as we doubt not it is the right—course on such occasions. It is analogous to the dreadful expedients to which individuals may lawfully resort on great emergencies. We can well imagine a brave and wise man standing sentry during a storm over the spirit-room of a ship, and shooting dead every one who may try to enter; but he would hardly wish to see a person who had entered and had intoxicated himself, transported for life after the ship had reached the port. On exactly the same grounds, we would say, maintain authority, repress panic, by the most stringent means—but do not, after the thing is over, punish a man for having mistaken his profession and miscalculated the strength of his own nerves, as if he were a forger or a burglar. No one doubts that the repression of crime is the object of punishment; but in all ordinary cases, what is required is not the prevention of this or that specific action, but the discouragement of an extensive class of actions. This is particularly the case where the punishment is transportation, or a long term of imprisonment. Such inflictions assume that the person punished is radically vicious, that his presence infects society at all points, and that the best thing that can be done with him is to separate him as far as possible from all intercourse with his fellows. It is upon this account that we transport a professional robber, a forger, a coiner, or a man guilty of gross acts of violence; but it is revolting to put into such a category a man who has been guilty of what, in any other profession, would be no crime at all. Surely it is a dreadful thing to doom one who may be irreproachable in every social relation to life-long infamy and misery, to the companionship of the very dregs of society, to servile labour, to almost inevitable pollution, for a mere weakness—the weakness perhaps of a moment. To have executed him then and there might have been justifiable; but to inflict upon him a lingering and dreadful punishment, which is to last for many years, is to create a maximum of misery for the sake of a minimum of example.

In another point of view, we think this punishment a most unwise one. No one can doubt the courage of both the services, but that courage depends greatly upon the maintenance of a high standard of personal honour. "Courage or felony," "glory or transportation," would not be very encouraging watchwords for troops going into battle. Xerxes flogged his troops into action, but we do not remember that it had a very encouraging effect upon them. To punish cowardice like larceny is, in fact, saying that disgrace is not a punishment. Military men ought to be taught, in every possible way, to look upon ignominy as the heaviest of penalties. Strip a man of his uniform, turn him out of the service with contempt, or, if you want an example, hang or shoot him if he is afraid to do his duty; but do not lead soldiers and sailors to suppose that it is necessary to repress cowardice as you repress passing bad money, and that their service is one to be performed grudgingly and as of necessity, under the severest penal sanctions. They ought to feel that it is of such a nature that honourable success is its highest reward, and disgrace its heaviest penalty. Who could bear to see Bruce's Address to his Soldiers run thus:—

Who would be a traitor knave?
Who would fill a coward's grave?
Who so base as be a slave?

Let him be sentenced to eight years' penal servitude.

Like the other high functions of society, military service must be a willing service if it is to be worth anything. Failure in its requirements must be punished by disgraceful expulsion, not by the aimless and fearful torture of a lifetime—torture which no humane person can think of unmoved. Little is to be apprehended from the bad example set by Lieutenant Dennehy, and both his crime and his punishment will speedily be forgotten; but unless this terrible sentence be remitted, the wretched man, to whom it has been an act of questionable mercy, will be pining in misery for years to come, and sinking to the level of his degraded companions, without warning or benefiting a single human being, and without having been guilty of anything beyond a weakness which is sufficiently punished by ignominious expulsion from his profession.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY.

AT the last Meeting of this Society, a paper was read by the Astronomer Royal, entitled, *Account of Pendulum Experiments undertaken in the Harton Colliery, for the purpose of determining the Mean Density of the Earth.*

In the first section of this paper, the author explains the reasons, founded on calculation, which appeared to make it probable that the comparison of gravity at the top and bottom of a mine would assist in determining the earth's mean density, with an accuracy perhaps superior to that obtained in the famous Schellien or the Cavendish Experiments. These reasons induced him first, in the summer of 1826 (in concert with Dr. Whewell), and again in 1828 (with Dr. Whewell, Mr. Sheepshanks, and others), to try the experiment in the Delerath mine, near Camborne in Cornwall. These attempts were both accidentally frustrated by causes having no connexion with the essential parts of the experiment. After a lapse of many years, he found that several circumstances (especially the general familiarity with the mani-

pulation of the galvanic telegraph, and the facility of applying it to the comparison of widely separated clocks) were very favourable to a repetition of the experiment. Accordingly, having selected the Harton Colliery, in the neighbourhood of South Shields, as a fit place in which two stations could be found in exactly the same vertical, but at 1256 feet difference in height, and being assured of every assistance from the owners of the mine, he proceeded with the investigation in the months of September and October, 1854.

The principal instruments employed were two detached pendulums on iron stands, the property of the Royal Society, which were most carefully repaired by Mr. Simms—graduated arcs, barometers, thermometers, &c.—two clocks, one the property of the Royal Society, which was fitted for this purpose with inclined gilded reflectors upon the pendulum balls, intended to be illuminated by the light of lamps passing through holes in the side of the clock cases—galvanometer needles attached to the clock-cases with circuit-breakers—a galvanic battery at the upper station—a journeyman clock at the upper station, fitted with an apparatus by which it completed the galvanic circuit at every 15 seconds of its own time—and two galvanic wires passing down the mine shaft, and forming a closed circuit through the battery, the journeyman clock, and the galvanometers.

The working party consisted of six persons, and the plan of observations was this:—Simultaneous observations of the two pendulums (one in the upper and the other in the lower station,) were kept up incessantly during the whole working time, day and night, for one week; then the pendulums were interchanged, and were observed in the same manner through another week. After this, the pendulums were twice interchanged, but the last two series of observations were so much shortened that both were included in one week. Each pendulum had six swings of nearly four hours each on every day of observation, and between the end of one swing and the beginning of the next, numerous galvanic signals were passed for the comparison of the clocks.

The second section of the paper gives the details of the comparison of clocks by the galvanic signals. On examining the proportion of rates, it was found that there was distinctly a personal equation in the observation of the galvanic signals. Approximate values for the different observers were obtained, and the proportion of rates was corrected for these equations.

The author then gives a description of the operation for measuring the depth of the mine, and treats of the process employed for computing the proportion of gravity at the upper and lower stations on an assumed proportion of the density of the mine rocks to the earth's mean density. He shows that, supposing the upper surface of the ground about Harton to have the true spherical form, it is unnecessary to give any attention to the irregularities of the surface on distant parts of the earth. He also shows that there is no reason to doubt the correctness of the law of decrease of the attraction of the earth's nucleus as depending on the elevation of the station, unless there be some serious irregularity in the arrangement or density of the matter immediately below Harton. Assuming this to be insensible, the theory of corrections for the inequalities of ground in the neighbourhood of Harton is then considered. The elevation of the upper station is about 74 feet above high water; and as it appears from this that the depth of the inequality can in no case amount to one-tenth of the depth of the lower station, it is easily found that the excess or defect of attraction will be computed with sufficient accuracy by suffering the excess or defect of matter to exist absolutely at the surface, in which case the effect on the upper station is nothing, and that on the lower station is readily calculated. In depressions like that of the sea, bounded (at least, for the purposes of computation) by a straight line near the mine, but unlimited in the other direction, a simple formula is found. For the application of these theorems, it was necessary to have a map giving the elevations of the ground at various points.

Putting D for the mean density of the earth, d for that of the shell, the fraction $\frac{\text{Gravity below}}{\text{Gravity above}}$ is computed to be $1.00012032 - 0.00017984 \times \frac{d}{D}$. The pendulum experiments give 1.00005185 . The comparison of these gives $\frac{D}{d} = 2.6266$.

The last portion of the paper contains a detailed account of the strata passed through in sinking the Harton shaft, and the specific gravities of many of the beds, as determined by Professor W. Miller, of Cambridge. The result for the mean specific gravity is 2.50. Substituting this in the equation given by the pendulum experiments, the mean specific gravity of the earth is found to be 6.566. Adverting to the excess of this number above those given by the Schhallien and the torsion-rod experiments, the author remarks that it is very difficult to assign the causes or the measures of error in either of the experiments, but he expresses his belief that the result of the present investigation may compete on at least equal terms with the others.

The following determinations respecting the density of the earth, as deduced from various experiments, are taken from *Weld's History of the Royal Society*:—

Schhallien, from Playfair's data, mean	4.713
from Dr. Hutton's data	4.481
Carlini, from pendulum on Mont Cenis	4.950
Reich, repetition of Cavendish's experiment	5.438
Cavendish, corrected by Baily	5.448
Baily	5.560

"The probable error of the whole," says Sir John Herschel, alluding to the foregoing experiments and their results, "shows that the mean specific gravity of this our planet is, in all human probability, quite as well determined as that of an ordinary hand-specimen in a mineralogical cabinet." This is assuredly a marvellous result, and it may teach us to despair of nothing which lies within the compass of number, weight, and measure.

A COMMISSIONER OF PUBLIC WORKS PAINTED BY HIMSELF.

IT will be in the remembrance of our readers that we lately pointed out, among the reasons which render our public buildings inferior to those of a second-rate German State, that a Public Works Department is wanted, and does not exist. We showed that the first Commissioner of Works is a Minister only in a very incomplete and secondary sense, and that he stands in that anomalous relation to other members of the public service which is most calculated to mortify and chill the earnest-minded official, while it gives a ready excuse for inaction to the pretender and the man of red tape. Since we hazarded these assertions, our views have received a striking confirmation in the quarter where we least looked for it, but which is the best able to give it. Sir Benjamin Hall has painted his own administrative portrait, and confessed his own impotence, in order to save himself from a scrape into which the general belief that he was a Minister had led him. Not many days ago, his office was besieged by a deputation to remonstrate about the threatened bisection of St. James's Park. "Why do you come to me?" was the substance of his reply—"I am only a servant; I know my place, and that is to obey my master. Besides, I am not in the Cabinet, and so I can't guess what my next order may be. Go to the Home Secretary, if you have any grievance touching the old-established Parks, and do not bother a faithful family retainer. To be sure," pointed out the Baronet, with a flash of conscious dignity, "there are three Parks which may justly be called the People's Parks"—as, with a somewhat invidious affectation of popularity-hunting, he was pleased to designate the Regent's Park, which was rigidly shut up till the voice of public opinion forced open its gates some years back, Victoria Park, which barely exists, and Battersea, which does not yet exist at all for practical purposes. "Over these I am omnipotent; but go to the Home Department about Hyde, St. James's, and the Green Parks, and be thankful for what you get there;" for in that Department, it seems, lies the arbitration of the question at issue, hampered by some kind of co-ordinate authority in the Ranger, the limits and relations of which, in regard to the Secretary of State on one side, and the Office of Works on the other, appear somewhat complicated, and are certainly not made clear by the right honourable baronet. At all events, one thing is evident—Sir George Grey is a "blessed Glendoveer"—"tis his to speak," 'tis Sir Benjamin's "to hear."

We do not accuse Sir Benjamin of any desire to diminish the importance of his office, or of himself as the holder of it. His consistent public career is a sufficient answer to any such imputation; and we have not the slightest doubt of his utter inability to cut a stick or turn a sod, of his own free will, in any of the three Royal Parks. But we say that for the functionary who represents the Public Works branch of the national service to stand in such a position is utterly disgraceful. We have already pointed out the evils of this arrangement so fully that we should not have recurred to the subject thus early, had not our assertions received so complete and striking a confirmation from so authoritative a quarter. But Sir Benjamin's defence points out a further anomaly in the arrangement, to which we did not at the time sufficiently advert—viz., that the office of Commissioner of Public Works is not the same office in the hands of different holders. Not only, pleaded the present occupant, am I merely Commissioner, but I am not in the Cabinet. A Commissioner of Public Works who is in the Cabinet is a perfectly different individual from one who is shut out from that conclave; not because his formal obligation to obey the Secretary of State's orders is less stringent, but because, as a Cabinet Minister, he has a voice in the concoction of his own instructions, to which, outside the Council Chamber, he goes through the form of giving a deferential obedience. With the non-Cabinet Commissioner this passive obedience is no formality.

We need scarcely point out that this fluctuating system is a mistake; and it is a mistake not confined to this particular office, but one which pervades the whole composition of Cabinets, owing to the gradual and accidental way in which the catalogue of offices connected with Cabinet seats has grown up. The fluctuation itself is an evil; and a further evil is caused by the confusion of parity and inferiority in the heads of greater and of subordinate departments, associated in the same Government on terms of ostensible equality, and voting together as Cabinet Ministers. In foreign constitutional governments, all of them new-minted since the French Revolution, the members of the Cabinet are uniformly heads of great departments. We should be sorry to change our liberty for the obstinate rigidity of Continental bureaucracy—we have no wish even to change the picturesque, antique irregularity of our official appellations for the monotony of "Minister of A," "Minister of B," &c. If our system errs in carrying this peculiarity to excess, it is an error which can easily be rectified by gradual alteration. Yet it certainly has

its inconveniences. It was owing to the inherent anomalousness of a subordinate sitting in council over his superior, that a precedent introduced by Lord Grey's Government was much disapproved of at the time, and has not, since the fall of Lord Melbourne, been repeated. We allude to the practice of giving a seat in the Cabinet to the Irish Secretary—a practice first, we believe, introduced in the case of the present Lord Derby. The Irish Secretary—who is in fact the Lord-Lieutenant's Prime Minister in his delegated realm—thus became a member of that body which for all practical purposes represents the Sovereign, whose *locum tenens* the Viceroy is. But this is not a whit more anomalous than raising a Public Works Commissioner to the Cabinet, and yet keeping him under orders from the Secretary of State. The similar anomaly of a Cabinet Secretary-at-War has been swept away by the abolition of the office. In the case of the Public Works, reform must consist in raising the office to the dignity of a high department, co-ordinate with, and independent of, the Home Secretaryship, and, like the latter, carrying with it a seat in the Cabinet as a matter of course.

REVIEWS.

A PRACTICAL TREATISE ON BANKING.*

THE republication of this work, in an enlarged and cheaper form, appears to have been suggested by the recent instances of banking and commercial mismanagement and disaster, and also by the discussion which is continually going forward upon the working of the Bank Charter Act of 1844. On both these topics Mr. Gilbert claims such high authority, and speaks with so much decision, that we have been tempted to examine, with some strictness, the grounds of his pretensions to be our guide.

We are glad to find that Mr. Gilbert, whatever he may have shown himself before Parliamentary Committees, is, in print, a modest man. He "does not know that he can promise much amusement." He remembers that "banking is considered a dry subject," and he is evidently unconscious of the power he possesses to move our laughter. He is utterly unaware that, in his section on *The Moral and Religious Duties of Banking Companies*, he has furnished—certainly at his own expense—the strongest existing proof that amusement may be found in the pursuit of knowledge. We came to learn, and we remain to laugh, and we thank those friends of Mr. Gilbert whose "favourable opinions" have procured the publication of this chapter, and thus brought within the reach of ourselves and our readers a spring of mirth which has been for nine years unknown to all except a chosen few. Our author expresses, in one of the notes to his wonderful eighth section, a strong sympathy for those bankers and bankers' clerks who want "an outlet for any surplus energy of character that may remain after the hours of business." Evidently Mr. Gilbert has felt this need himself. He labours hard, and, as we know, with eminent success, in the bank of which he is the respected chief, but he is for regular hours, and no work on Sundays; and so, in the evenings and on the days of rest, he has found time to meditate upon the duties and responsibilities of "Co." The man who, "accompanied by his family, appropriately attired, pays his morning homage in the temple of religion, and passes the remainder of the day in works of charity or piety," is, unless we are mistaken, a portrait of our author by his own hand; and one of the pious works which have engaged his superfluous vigour of mind has been a new and ingenious exposition of Holy Scripture as applicable to banking, railway, and other companies.

If we had a fault to find with this remarkable inroad upon the province of divines, it would be that the time selected for attempting it has not been so felicitously chosen as our new biblical expositor appears to think. For our own part, we are in a state of mind analogous to that which produced the reaction against Puritanism, and the consequent extravagance of the times of Charles II. We have imbibed a prejudice against sanctimonious bankers, and we have a fixed determination to deposit none of our monies or securities with any house whose partners are "powerful" at Exeter Hall. A vision of Sir John Dean Paul, with a hymn-book in one hand, and a begging-box labelled "Mission to the Quashimaboos" in the other, will long haunt our view, and hinder us from giving to "prudence and propriety of conduct" that confidence which Mr. Gilbert tells us they should command. If the London and Westminster Bank wishes to gain the business of the fallen house, we are tempted to believe that keeping racers and an opera-box would be more judicious in the Manager than either listening, "appropriately attired," to sermons, or preaching himself upon the moral responsibilities of "Co." If we had to choose a principal for a new Bank, we should look out for a man whose costume was exactly opposite to that of our author in the frontispiece, and whose habits were so lax as even to allow indulgence in what Mr. Gilbert calls "the minor immorality" of smoking.

But it is time for us to endeavour to do full justice to one who claims, along with Grote and Rogers, to stand high at once in

literature and in banking. The question debated by our author in his eighth section is, "whether public companies are capable of virtuous and vicious actions, and, like individuals, are responsible to a Superior Power, who will reward or punish them according to their works?" In order to establish the affirmative of this question, it is first to be proved that public companies are moral agents. To prove this, it is remarked that individuals stand in certain relations to other individuals, to the State, and to the Deity, and that those relations imply duties; and for the benefit of such as may be rash enough to dispute this proposition, Mr. Gilbert quotes a page of texts of Scripture, which, however, he has the candour to admit are scarcely necessary. It is then argued that public companies also sustain relations, and are, therefore, bound to duties; and although no texts are given us for this—since, as Mr. Gilbert says, "we might read through the Bible and not find a chapter headed, *The duties of Public Companies*"—we nevertheless, are quite ready to concede the argument. But further, public companies are analogous to nations, which are admitted to be moral agents, and whose responsibility is declared by Moses. Nations, too, have been rewarded and punished, as they have risen or fallen in morality and religion; and on this subject "we might quote the language of historians, of moralists, of philosophers, and of theologians; but we prefer citing the language of a monarch, especially as that monarch is our own. Surrounded by her nobles, her senators, her councillors, her judges, her generals, and her admirals, Queen Victoria has declared from the throne"—what? The following platitude, most worthy of a Royal Speech, that "Religious and moral principles are the surest foundation of our national security and happiness." It is a pity that Mr. Gilbert did not live under James I., for between his monetary skill and his faith in the royal wisdom, he could infallibly have become the greatest goldsmith of his time.

Our author, orthodox in all things, has three heads to his discourse; and the second of them is an enumeration of the duties which, as moral agents, public companies are bound to perform. The rules he lays down are often obvious enough, but, like the soldiers of Cromwell, he seems himself unwilling to try them unless some warrant can be found in Scripture, and by preference in the Old Testament. Thus, banking companies should not take the accounts of disreputable "parties," and a fraudulent bankrupt should not be allowed to re-open his account; for it is asked in the book of Chronicles, "Shouldest thou help the ungodly?" and the Psalmist has said, and pious managers will say after him, "Depart from me, ye evil doers." Again, public companies should not speak unjustly or unkindly of each other, for "love as brethren" is a precept of St. Peter, which we fear has not always been rigidly regarded by the Great Western and London and North Western Railways. The first-named company, too, has lately been an involuntary transgressor of the next rule, "not to change too frequently the rate of dividend"—which, it appears, is grounded upon some words in the book of Proverbs, "meddle not with them that are given to change." From the text, "if thine enemy be hungry, give him bread to eat," is deduced the rule, that, "if there be a run on a banking company, the rival banking companies should render aid;" and that "a railway company should not rejoice when accidents occur on a rival line." Again, St. Peter has said, "use hospitality one to another, without grudging;" and from that text it is inferred that "public companies, on particular occasions, such, for example, as the opening of a new line by a railway company, should entertain their friends and others connected with the company. It is also a good practice to give an annual dinner to all the servants of the company." The words "without grudging" may suggest that, when the Company can afford it, these entertainments should be given in a rather handsome style, without "a too strict regard to economy." Mr. Gilbert is evidently of that school of divines which considers that every verse in the Bible was primarily intended to be preached from, and that a forcible sermon may always be got out of the smallest fragment of text, if only the laws of language and of common sense be sufficiently disregarded and cast aside. But further, "on these festive occasions," the humble servants of the company should not be forgotten; and then follow the words, "thou shalt be recompensed in the resurrection of the just"—which can only apply to the company that gives the dinner "in a rather handsome style." So that we have here a profane absurdity, not easily reconcilable, as will be seen, with another absurdity equally profane, which is yet to come.

For, thirdly, our author teaches that liability to rewards and punishment is essential to moral agency; and, as he is writing for "logical readers," he takes care to propound his argument in due form, as follows:—He first reasons, as wiser men have done, that the Righteous Governor of the world must reward the good and punish the wicked; that this is not always done in the present world; and that therefore there must be a future world, in which this retribution will take place. So far good. But then our moralist ventures where none have gone before, and where few, we think, will follow him. Good actions will be rewarded, he says, and wicked actions punished, in public companies as well as in individuals. But public companies will not exist in a future world; and, therefore, they must be rewarded and punished in the present world. Now, certainly we should never have supposed, even if

* *A Practical Treatise on Banking.* By James William Gilbert, F.R.S. General Manager of the London and Westminster Bank. Sixth Edition. London. Longman and Co. 1856.

left to our own guidance, that public companies would exist in the next world; but still it is satisfactory to find that Scripture, as well as apparent reason, is on our side. We learn from St. Luke that the marriage contract will then be dissolved; and Mr. Gilbert argues *à fortiori* that all other contracts will be dissolved also. For example, we may feel tolerably sure that there will be no contributions under the Winding-up Act. This is, of course, conclusive; but if not, we might perhaps frame an argument as logical as Mr. Gilbert's, thus:—The good and wicked actions of public companies are certainly not always rewarded and punished in the present world. Therefore, these companies must exist in a future world, in which the retribution will take place, especially in favour of such companies as give an annual dinner "in a rather handsome style" to their humbler servants.

We commend this theory of Mr. Gilbert's to the notice of the discontented shareholders who have been meeting at the London Tavern to complain of the mismanagement of our railways. "With public companies, this is a state of just retribution, and hence, with them, righteousness will bring wealth, and wickedness will bring poverty." Mr. Gilbert, no doubt, is equally convinced that wealth has been brought by righteousness, and poverty by wickedness; and it must follow that he will pronounce the Belgian State Railways to be righteous, but the Great Western to be wicked, and the Eastern Counties very wicked indeed. There is indeed an objection to this theory, which Mr. Gilbert will, we trust, dispose of in his next edition. The public, he says, are much indebted to the railway companies for prohibiting the "minor immorality" of smoking in their carriages and establishments. But if this be a good action, where, we ask, is the reward of it? The foreign railway companies, it is well known, connive at this "immorality;" and yet they, we are told, are flourishing, while the English companies are in difficulty and distress. Truly, we begin to feel a tinge of scepticism, and we hope Mr. Gilbert will be quick with his seventh edition, or we may become hardened in our unbelief before it appears.

Mr. Gilbert lays it down, in an early chapter, that a banker need not be a philosopher or a man of literature, but that he needs a large portion of common sense. Certainly our author is not successful either in philosophy or in literature, and the experiments he has made in these lines do not heighten our opinion of his common sense. If, therefore, any of our readers should be inclined to attach importance to the strictures he has published on the Bank Charter Act, we entreat them to remember that his remarks upon that measure are contained in the same volume with the inefable extravagances we have above exposed. This presumption against Mr. Gilbert's currency doctrines is, we think, entitled to no small weight, and we may perhaps, on another occasion, support it by an examination of the arguments on which he grounds those doctrines.

TWO MONTHS IN PARIS.*

M. ADOLF STAHR is well known in Germany, both as an historian and as a traveller. He has written a history of that unfortunate bubble, the Prussian Revolution of 1848, and an account of his travels in Italy; and he has written so as to win a reputation gradually extending far beyond the bounds of his own country. The latter work especially has few rivals in modern books of travel for force, originality, and freshness. His last production is a sketch of what he saw and did during two months spent at Paris. He has the great merit of writing simply, and of using language fitted to his thoughts. He has also keen observation, and a knowledge of European history, past and present, sufficient to furnish a standard by which he may compare what he sees with what he knows. Politically he is a Socialist, with a creed negative rather than positive, enabling him to criticise the King of Prussia and the French Emperor, if not to indicate clearly what could stand in their place. His reflections on French society, institutions, morals, and even art, are coloured by his political opinions, but they are never extravagant or unjust. There is not much brilliancy in the style, but then there is no heaviness. Every description points a thing worth describing, and every impression recorded is an impression worth attending to. M. Stahr worked hard at the ordinary sights—he went to the Pantheon, the Louvre, and the tomb of Napoleon. Everywhere he looked about him with the eye of an artist; and a man must have some freshness of thought and skill in writing who can furnish new matter in speaking of Horace Vernet and Ary Scheffer, and who can criticise, without being tedious, the Venus of Milos and the Diana of Versailles. There are also some very pleasing sketches of the suburbs; and Montmorency, Neuilly, and St. Cloud give occasion to remarks on Rousseau, Louis Philippe, and Napoleon, such as might be expected from a man who has outlived his admiration for the writers of the eighteenth century, and can never outlive his detestation of the rulers of the nineteenth. Still M. Stahr may be described as a man of fair and moderate mind; and, if he has his own way of viewing the world, at any rate he does not look at it through a green glass. German books make their way slowly in England, else these volumes are exactly fitted to be favourites here; for every subject is treated with simplicity,

accuracy, and brevity, the literary virtues dearest to Englishmen, who love to be instructed and amused, and shun anything like prosing, with a sacred horror.

M. Stahr visited Paris at a period when, although the power of the present Emperor was fully established, the Revolution of February was still a topic of general discussion. There is not much to be said of this curious episode in French History which has not been said often before; but M. Stahr gives something like novelty to his political criticism by appending to it extracts from a curious pamphlet written by M. Tirel, *Contrôleur des Equipages du Roi* under Louis Philippe. The writer looked on the Revolution from the "stand-point" of the stables, and judged of the Provisional Government by the use its members made of the Royal carriages. He seems, however, to have been gifted with more common sense, and to have written remarks more worth reading, than could have been expected from a man who records as a brilliant stroke of satire that, when a carriage was ordered for Ledru Rollin, he selected a pair of horses which bore the names of "Impostor" and "Nero." Like all other Orleansists, he treats the Revolution as a surprise, a stroke undesigned and undeserved—not that Louis Philippe governed well, but he that kept within the letter of his promises, and everything went on comfortably. This apology affords M. Stahr an opening for many socialistic reflections, and in a subsequent portion of the work he states his opinions more fully—the general result being that Louis Philippe ruined himself by corrupting France, which may now be taken for granted, and that the February Revolution was the opening of a great socialist era, about which we may still have doubts. A visit to the Bal Mabille furnishes an opportunity of remarking how intimately the police system, rendered necessary by the corruption of the public mind, is connected with the existence of this corruption as its cause. The aim of the dancers is, he says, to touch without transgressing the bounds of decency prescribed by the police. In this, as in a thousand other similar instances, men are induced to abandon every internal standard of morality, and thus everything which the police permits is thought right. The lower the grade of society, however, the less is this felt; for the poor man is precluded by his poverty from many of the indulgences which, by being allowed, gain an official sanction. Thus a ball at the *Closeries du Lilas* presented to the eyes of M. Stahr a very favourable contrast to the Bal Mabille; and the pleasures of the students of the Quartier Latin seemed simple and innocent beside the carefully regulated pruriency of the dancers of the *Cancan*. But it was only by going still lower, and by attending a meeting of work-people outside the barrier, that he could find an atmosphere of moral purity. The sons of the people were faultless. There they were, to the number of 400, sober, decent, orderly; singing the beautiful songs of Pierre Dupont, mourning the misery of their oppressed lot, yet abjuring revenge on their oppressors. M. Stahr writes with so much modesty, feeling, and sense, that he almost persuades us to think as he thinks; else we might ask what is the exact meaning of all the praise he bestows on these poor people, and of his aspirations for the time when they shall be all-powerful? Does he mean that any of the 400 he saw before him could govern France for a day? Foreigners have an advantage over Englishmen in dealing with such questions, for they have a sympathy, taught them by suffering, which we cannot feel. But the very calmness which we gain from our inexperience of political degradation, enables us to dissect better than they can the meaning of general terms, and the import of general propositions. M. Stahr seems caught by the magic name of "the people." To us it is obvious that, where foreign tyranny does not exist, "the people" can always be resolved into those who govern and those who are governed; and to mix them up in a general term does not materially help us to decide on the principles of government.

Perhaps the most interesting portion of the work is that in which M. Stahr gives an account of the interviews he had with men of literary eminence. Cousin is the first sketched—the Cousin of these latter days—the despairing and distrustful partisan of order—a very different man from the young and ardent philosopher who was the freest of the free in the days of the *Restauration*, and offered an asylum to Paul Louis Courier. The conversation was opened by a reference to the Aristotelian studies they had once had in common, but was soon diverted into the absorbing channel of modern politics. Cousin had most of the talk to himself, and having politely asked his visitor what he thought of France, answered his own question by launching out against the follies of German nationality, the errors of Hegel, and the dangerous tendencies of German criticism. The ex-peer of France had outlived his activity and courage; the world he had known and had helped to create had been swept away; and he could do nothing better than moan over what had succeeded it. Cousin's clear but shallow philosophy was exactly of a kind to impress and charm, while it caught a reflected light from the youth and ardour of its author, but could never support any one in the trials of solitude and old age. It is not, therefore, surprising that he presented a spectacle from which M. Stahr turned with regret, and almost with contempt. A very different impression was produced by a visit to Lamennais. The change here was from bad to good. The man who had asked for a Cardinal's hat from Leo XII.—of whom Courier had said, "this Abbé wishes to preserve everything that is rotting and falling"—who had gained a European fame by works written in biblical

* *Zwei Monate in Paris.* Von Adolf Stahr. Oldenburg: Verlag der Schulze'schen Buchhandlung.

and mystical phraseology—was now a man after M. Stahr's heart, looking forward, not backward, simple in style and diction, and expressing with nervous precision the leading ideas of what is termed by its votaries "the Religion of the Future." The hours passed with Lamennais are noted by M. Stahr as among the pleasantest he spent at Paris; superficial differences of opinion only imparted zest to their substantial agreement; and, when they finally parted, Lamennais bid him farewell by saying, "Nous sommes des frères, et nous le resterons."

Readers of *Monte Christo* will peruse with pleasure a lively account of Alexandre Dumas. M. Stahr expected to find the author of that wonderful romance surrounded by something of the gorgeous luxury which he has loved to paint, and we are told that German rumour had been very wild and copious on the subject. But instead of the tropical vegetation which had been fabled to adorn the studio of the novelist, M. Stahr found nothing but a few oleanders and heliotropes; and, excepting that the walls were covered with specimens of ancient and modern implements of war, the simplicity of the furniture betrayed scarcely anything of the fortunes of an author who can boast that he receives every year a hundred thousand francs from his publisher. The conversation ran principally on the character and career of the late Duke of Orleans, of whom Dumas was entitled to speak by a long and intimate acquaintance. "The Prince," he said, "was the incarnation of the *esprit français*, and, moreover, of that peculiar type which belongs only to Paris." Louis Philippe was jealous of his son, and held him in very tight reins. Spies were constantly set to watch him, and to report to his father what he said and did. In 1839, the Duke, in a company consisting only of officers of high rank, expressed an opinion that an overthrow of the existing government was at hand, and two days afterwards he found the very words he had used noted down in the handwriting of the King. Even a man of much less ability might have prophesied the downfall of a dynasty which was maintained by such a frightful system of suspicion, and the Duke of Orleans seems to have been peculiarly quick in catching every indication of the coming storm. One day he was hunting at Fontainebleau; the sport was not good; and he happened to say to an Italian nobleman who was by his side, "What do you think of us as sportsmen?" "You are no better than pigs," was the reply. The Prince turned to Dumas and whispered, "Do you think our monarchy possible, when such a speech is made to the heir of the Crown?"

M. Stahr also paid a series of visits to Heine. The "dying Aristophanes" seems to have welcomed him with sincere pleasure, and to have been stimulated by his presence into abundant sallies of caustic and discursive wit. M. Stahr found him in his bed of suffering, and learnt from his lips something of the agony he endured:—

"I undergo," he said, "without ceasing, boundless tortures. Even my dreams are full of my pains. My disease seems to me slowly creeping up my frame, and here I lie waiting till it reaches my heart. I have, however, some comforts still: if I can no longer endure my torment, I take morphia; if I can no longer cut up my enemies, I hand them over to Providence; if I can no longer look after my affairs, I entrust them to God, except indeed," he added with a smile, "my money affairs, and those I still prefer looking after myself."

On more than one occasion, he expressed to M. Stahr how much he still clung to life, miserable as his life was:—

"Oh, that I could but get a little more rest!" he said. "My horror at the tedium of happiness makes me, in the midst of all my misery, long to live. I feel as Achilles felt when he said, he would rather be the poorest labourer on earth, than a prince in the kingdom of the dead."

He talked freely on all kinds of subjects, and even in the brief notes given of these conversations we can recognise with what admirable point and sense every topic was handled. Nothing, for instance, can be better in its way than his observations on Georg Jung's *History of Woman*, which M. Stahr had sent him to read. He thought the author too enthusiastic in his advocacy of female rights:—

"I am not," he said, "for this unlimited emancipation. I say of women what Napoleon said of the blacks. Napoleon was asked why he would not free the negroes, and replied, 'I will answer you in two words, Because I am a white'—so I say, if I am asked why I do not join in this cry for the emancipation of women, 'Because I am married.' We entrust women with the care of the whole future generation, and cannot afford to have them running about the streets."

M. Stahr gives many other sayings and anecdotes of Heine, but he writes so concisely and simply that we may translate but cannot abridge. We have said enough to show what his book is like. If any one wishes for a work at once good and small, let him read these two little volumes, and he will find in them enough matter to set up a score of ordinary tour-writing travellers.

MR. WARREN.*

THERE is something almost pathetic in the feelings with which we once more turn over pages so familiar to us as those of the *Diary of a Late Physician* and *Ten Thousand a Year*. Novels are so much the echo of the time in which they are written, and good novels reproduce its passions so graphically, that they are almost like old journals. Perhaps few novels have this quality in a greater degree than Mr. Warren's. M. Hue tells us that there was a kind of smell which warned him instantly of his return into China—that it pervaded roads, houses, inns, and

streets, and that if he had been unconsciously transported thither from France, this circumstance alone would have left on his mind no doubt of the fact. There is something of the same kind in books, especially books of fiction. A very few sentences of an old novel carry us back irresistibly to the scenes in which they were first enjoyed. There is a lazy, holiday atmosphere about them which makes such associations peculiarly pleasant; and we connect Mr. Warren with so many pleasant days volup-tuously loitered away in steamers or hotels, that it is a little difficult to criticize him quite impartially.

Apart from such considerations, his books are nearly the most perfect instance with which we are acquainted of the results of the habit of publishing novels in Paris. The stamp of *Blackwood's Magazine* is upon them all. A magazine article has objects essentially different from a complete book. It aims at producing some one strong impression, reflecting, as far as possible, the passions of the time in which it was composed; but it is almost impossible to impart to a collection of such sketches that artistic unity which is indispensable to the excellence of a novel. Several of our great novelists have suffered grievously from this cause; but it has never, so far as we know, operated so strongly upon the writings of any man as upon those of Mr. Warren. There is not one of his works that does not bear the deepest traces of it. The *Diary of a Late Physician* is, perhaps, the least injuriously affected; for the stories are so short and unconnected that their still further division to suit the magazine in which they were originally published interfered but little with their several plots. In *Ten Thousand a Year* the result is more obvious. The story is twice as long as it ought to be—the ins and outs of the legal proceedings become extremely wearisome—and the necessity of providing a point or tableau once in every thirty or forty pages distracts the attention. The plot of *Now and Then* proves the same thing in another way. Though it was, we believe, originally published in its present form, it shows that the habit of writing for a magazine had almost destroyed the writer's constructive faculty. It is a mere string of tableaux, connected by a plot so meagre as hardly to deserve the name. It is simply this:—A man falsely accused of murder is sentenced to be hanged; his sentence is commuted into transportation for life; and twenty years after, his innocence being discovered, he comes back to England in time to see his son take his degree as senior wrangler. It is impossible to consider books so constructed as belonging to the highest class of fictions. The nature of the case debars Mr. Warren from laying claim to any further merit than that of being the writer of picturesque and striking sketches; and it is on this principle that we must attempt to estimate the value of his writings.

With one test of this sort of excellence few books have ever more fully complied—they are, especially with foreigners, among the most successful of English works of fiction. It was only the other day that we read of a translation of Mr. Warren's books into Danish, and we think Russian; and in the preface to his collective edition, he speaks of a Bohemian version. There is no difficulty in tracing the causes of this popularity. The author possesses a certain kind of power in an almost unrivalled degree. What Eugene Sue and Harrison Ainsworth do for vulgar readers, Mr. Warren does for the better educated. The amount of sensation to be got out of the *Diary of a Late Physician* is almost unparalleled. The divers diseases, and sundry kinds of death, which terminate most of the stories, are brought out in the most effective style. Mr. Warren is a gentleman, and understands how gentlemen behave themselves; so that, when we arrive at such a termination as this—". . . "Oh God! Oh horror! Oh my unhappy soul! Despair! Hark! What do I hear? Do I hear aright! . . . Have I seen aright—or is it all a dream? Shall I awake to-morrow and find it false?" the benefit of the shock is not diminished by preparatory vulgarity, the catastrophe being introduced by a great deal of very passable imitation of the way in which members of the House of Commons talk and write journals. The union of the high seasoning of Mr. Warren's situations, with the behind-the-scenes air of the connecting conversations, is, we suspect, the great cause of his popularity with foreigners. Some of the conjectures of the French translator as to the persons represented in the *Diary of a Late Physician* are excessively ludicrous. "Lord Alcock," "Lord Williams," &c., are substituted for the various blanks with the most comic *bona fides*. To English readers the high seasoning of the stories is all the more welcome, because it is rare to find an English author who has not the fear of ridicule sufficiently before his eyes to prevent his indulging in the kind of excitement to which Mr. Warren so liberally treats his admirers. "The Romance of Death" is the staple of the *Diary of a Late Physician*; but much as this circumstance has added to the popularity of the book, we cannot allow that it adds to its merits. To sup—morally or physically—on raw pork chops, may produce picturesque dreams, but it spoils the digestion. We must, however, be careful in our criticisms on this subject. Mr. Warren informs one of his critics, who charges him with exaggeration, that he "knows of such a tale as, if told, might make a devil to leap with horror in the fires—one that a man might listen to with quaking heart and creeping flesh, and prayers to God that it might be forgotten." Perhaps, if we say too much about it, he may be provoked into publishing it—an infliction which we have no desire to provoke.

* Works of Samuel Warren, D.C.L. 5 vols. Blackwood.

Ten Thousand a Year is the work on which Mr. Warren's literary reputation principally depends. It appears to us to have some undoubted merits. The plot is a very pleasant innovation upon the almost unbroken chain of precedents which tie novelists down to three volumes of love-making. A novel made out of a law-suit is like honey from the lion's jaw, and though, as we have already observed, the circumstances under which the book was published destroy its effects as a whole, each part by itself is very lively. Nothing in Dickens can exceed, if anything can equal, the merit of the scenes which describe the hero's early poverty, the insolence which follows his elevation, and the beggarly degradation into which he ultimately sinks; nor can anything be more life-like than the picture which is drawn of the den of Messrs. Quirk, Gammon, and Snap. The scene in which Mr. Quirk entertains the editor of the *Sunday Flash* and the leaders of the Old Bailey bar at "Alibi Lodge" (a name worthy of Thackeray), and those in which Gammon entraps Quirk into forging evidence, have always appeared to us even better than Mr. Dickens's portrait of Messrs. Dodson and Fogg. One of the great charms of the book is, no doubt, the use which it makes of law for the purposes of machinery. This plan gratifies so many people who dabble in that subject, and fancy that they understand it—it affords such a fair opportunity of introducing all sorts of picturesque and unexpected turns into the story—it enables the author to invest his book with such a half comic, half serious purpose, that we cannot but regard the idea as a very felicitous one. But these great merits are counterbalanced by even greater defects. The book leaves upon the reader's mind the impression that it was written in an irritable, vain, fastidious spirit. Though no such conclusion may be logically deducible from it, it is just the sort of book a person would write who believed all virtue, and almost all talent, to be confined to people of fortune and their dependents. If a man belongs to the favoured caste, he has a beautiful wife and a lovely sister, and there is a white-haired old vicar at his gate, who is a sort of Whole Duty of Man incarnate, and who, with respectful firmness, quotes Scripture to his noble patron, and calls him "my son." Whenever anything goes wrong with this blessed creature, he bursts into heroics, and uses language which, in any other walk of life, no man would use who was not a born fool. He tells his wife and sister to "play the woman," and the sister answers, "There spoke my own noble brother." In return for all this virtue, Mr. Warren worships the work of his hands with the most ludicrous fondness:—

"My glorious Kate, how my heart goes forth towards you." "Think not, Misfortune, that over this man thou art about to achieve thy accustomed triumphs. Here behold thou hast a MAN to contend with; nay, more, a CHRISTIAN MAN, who hath calmly girded up his loins against the coming fight."

Unfortunately, we cannot quite forget that the "Christian man" in small capitals is Mr. Warren himself, and that he has it in his power to "flog 'ee and preach 'ee too," as far as Misfortune is concerned. In another place, after specifying his misfortune to his hero, Mr. Warren indignantly apostrophizes the Devil as follows:—"Oh, foolish fiend! and didst thou really think that this little matter was enough to make the Christian man doubt," &c. What the Devil may have thought of Mr. Aubrey, we cannot say, as we have no claims to possessing his confidence; our own opinion of that exemplary Christian man is that he was a very silly fellow, married to a very silly wife. His folly and supineness about his lawsuit can only be matched by the vulgarity which suggests to him to conceal his new place of abode from all his former friends, and by the childishness with which his wife sobs, screams, and, in plain words, makes a fool of herself, when he is arrested for debt. The Recorder of Hull must have peculiar notions of his own profession if he considers such a thin-skinned dandy suited for it.

When Mr. Warren has to do with those who are not so happy as to be born with silver spoons in their mouths, he takes a very different tone. A few sentences are here and there thrown in to deprecate the conclusion that all vulgar people are like those whom he describes; but if a man represents only the fools and knaves of a class, he misrepresents the class. There are three dissenting clergymen introduced into *Ten Thousand a Year*. The parts assigned to them may be inferred from their names, "Mudflint," "Viper," and "Dismal Horror." Two of them are professional libellers, and one at least a seducer. Poverty, unless it is the poverty of gentlemen or their dependents, is always held up to contempt. The rich people are called—"Aubrey," "Delamere," "De la Zouch," "Dreddlington," and "Wolstenholme." The respectable country attorney is "Parkinson;" his respectable agent, "Runnington;" the white-haired vicar, "Tatham," and so on. On the other hand, the Whigs, shopkeepers, tradespeople, and editors, have such names as "Tittlebat Titmouse," "Oily Gammon," "Viper," "Horror," "Harkaway Rotgut Wildfire," "Mudflint," "Bloodsuck," "Snake," "Yahoo," "Fang," "Snout," "Diabolus Gander," "Swindell O'Gibbet," "O'Squeal," "Bulfinch," and "Tagrag." The spirit which suggests such names is bad enough; and it is curious to compare such coarse abuse as this with the delicate satire conveyed by Mr. Thackeray's nomenclature. Such names as "Fitzurse Castle," "Cubley Park," the "Duke of Stilton," "Lady Jane Sheepshanks," "Mr. Hornblower," and the like, suggest the characteristics of the persons represented, without falling into the error of writing, "This is a fool," "This is a liar," under the principal figures.

Now and Then is chiefly remarkable for what, in a laudatory advertisement, would be called its "high religious tone." To us, Mr. Warren's religion is about the most unpleasant thing in his books. We do not doubt his sincerity, but there is a hankering after stage effect in all that he writes, which is very ill-suited for such subjects. The venerable peasants and white-haired priests, the lovely girls who place little New Testaments in the way of "my papa," and fling themselves upon the bosoms of all sorts of pious friends with floods of tears, are ridiculous to plain people. There is not one trace of this vehement excitement of feeling in the New Testament, and it appears to us quite inconsistent both with truth and sobriety. People may be very good Christians who are essentially vulgar, pious, squinting, with a keen eye to their business, and an utter incapacity for making scenes. The saponaceous and oleaginous incumbent with the vulgar wife, and Ham, Shem, and Japhet buggy, depicted by Sydney Smith, is a pleasant relief after the innumerable meek though high-bred vicars, with angelic faces, snow-white locks, and hearts softened by early crosses in love, who are in so many novels the standard representatives of the clerical profession.

As for the *Lily and the Bee*, there are depths into which the most heroic critic shrinks from following his author. We can only say, *Si ridiculum queris inspicere*. Two volumes of Miscellaneous Essays, republished principally from *Blackwood*, form a part of the present edition of Mr. Warren's works. One of them is occupied almost entirely by a set of articles on *Townshend's Modern State Trials*—a bad book on a most interesting subject. The articles seem to us hardly worth republishing. Some personal reminiscences please us better. Far the best, in our judgment, are a defence of Mr. Phillips for the manner in which he conducted the case of Courvoisier, and a Memoir of Mr. Smith, the author of *Smith's Mercantile Law* and *Smith's Leading Cases*. The subjects are interesting, and are ably handled.

Mr. Warren's name is not likely to be soon forgotten. He is a great illustration of the truth of the maxim that half is sometimes better than the whole. His comedy is excellent, his tragedy very poor, and his politics chiefly, we think, of the rhetorical and sentimental order. His books contain evidence of many gifts, but they are not precisely those which would fit him either for a place amongst the English classics, or even for that humbler elevation to which his friends wish to raise him—a seat in parliament for Midhurst.

FERGUSON'S HANDBOOK OF ARCHITECTURE.*

WITH numberless histories of architecture in existence, such as the works of Hope and Freeman, and not a few handbooks (Rickman, Bloxam, Parker, &c.) of the national mediæval styles, English literature was destitute—except in the shape of Mr. Gwilt's somewhat heavy *Encyclopædia*—of that great desideratum, an illustrated handbook of all architecture, similar to the publications in French of Ramée and Batissier. Hope's history, admirably illustrated, is chiefly confined to the derivation of mediæval from classical architecture. Freeman's, on the other hand, boasts only of a single engraving. Fortunately, the task of supplying the long-felt void has fallen upon one who has already shown himself no mere compiler, but a man of bold and original views, whether his subject be the topography of Jerusalem—in which we think, with Professor Willis, that he has not made out his case—or the reform of fortification, in which we are equally convinced that red tape and red cloth need not be ashamed to listen to the voice of the amateur civilian.

Mr. Fergusson's Handbook consists of two parts, of very dissimilar lengths. We have first a short introduction, containing the author's own views upon the philosophy of architecture—the moral, so to speak, of the whole book—and then we have the text of the work, epitomising with copious illustrative woodcuts the facts of the architecture of all time, except the last century or two. It would have been a more precise arrangement to have reversed this order, and we shall accordingly reserve to the last our remarks upon the introduction.

Contrary to the usual practice of writers on this subject, the architecture of India forms the topic of the first book—a topic on which it is well known that Mr. Fergusson is extensively and personally informed. We cannot pretend to analyse the varied materials brought together under this head. One remark, however, occurs, which the learned writer seems to have made somewhat too hastily, considering his own classification. Speaking of Burmese architecture, he observes:—

One feature remarked by Colonel Symes, and shown in several drawings, published and unpublished, is worthy of observation, which is the existence in these ruins of pointed arches of the Gothic form, coupled with vaulted apartments. This presents a peculiarity unknown elsewhere in Buddhist architecture, or indeed in any Indian style of any age; but until we know the epoch of the buildings in which these arches are found, it is needless speculating on their existence, or guessing at the mode of their introduction. At the same time, if they are old, which it is generally supposed they are, they form the most interesting features of these edifices.

Substantially, this assertion is quite correct; but if we turn to page 105, we find, among specimens of "Southern Hindu

* *The Illustrated Handbook of Architecture*: being a concise and popular Account of the different Styles of Architecture prevailing in all ages and countries. By James Fergusson, M.R.I.B.A., Author of "Palaces of Ninveh and Persepolis restored." 2 vols. London: Murray. 1855.

architecture," a woodcut of the great Hall at Madura, which Mr. Fergusson attributes to the commencement of the eighteenth rather than the seventeenth century. Here Gothic architecture reproduces itself with an exactness of which hardly any European designer of that date could have been capable. There are circular pillars with moulded capitals, which carry pointed arches, resembling specimens of the very earliest days of the thirteenth or the end of the twelfth century. Above them ranges what in fact is foliated triforium, and the feathered ribs of the barrel-roof rest upon bold vaulting shafts. In short, the imitation, regarded generally, is quite astonishing. We must explain that it is stated that at Madura, the influence of Mohammedan art, which admits the arch, had been at work. But still, when Mr. Fergusson repudiated the pointed arch "for any age" of Hindu architecture, he should have made this exception when he himself classified Madura as a Hindu building.

Chinese, Central American, Assyrian, Persian, Egyptian, Grecian, Roman, and Saracenic architecture, fill up the first volume. The second is wholly devoted to the architecture of the first fifteen centuries of the Christian era, treated with a breadth, and yet minuteness, which show how deeply the author has pondered his subject. This portion of the work is curious, as demonstrating the hold which the branch of study called by its special votaries "ecclesiology" has taken of thinking minds; for although civil constructions are not neglected, the mediæval cathedral or abbey forms, in almost every section, the *point de départ*, and its structure, ritual arrangements, and so forth, give rise to innumerable most interesting disquisitions. Yet Mr. Fergusson is, we should gather, very far indeed from holding views which, in the mind of the most bitter controversialist, could be termed extreme. Among the illustrations occur a large series of plans of mediæval cathedrals, singularly well selected, and most of them, like those in the first volume, engraved upon a uniform scale of 100 feet to an inch—a precaution which augments immensely their comparative value to the architectural student.

Our space does not allow of our taking up any of the points for discussion liberally scattered through the work; so we shall content ourselves with extracting the most salient portions of a comparison between the cathedral architecture of England and that of the Continent—merely observing that, with all our patriotism, we cannot go to the same extent of architectural nationality as the accomplished writer. The very excess of bulk on which he dwells ought to be included as an element of beauty. In particular, we must demur to his preference, elsewhere stated, of wooden roofs over stone vaults. We doubt exceedingly the opinion that the latter, unless covered by a protecting outside roof of wood, must perish. We believe that, if precautions were taken that water should not lodge in the valleys, a stone vault—assuming sufficient support—would be as durable as a stone wall, although exposed to the elements. If we are not much mistaken, the vault of Seville Cathedral is unprotected; and at Roslyn Chapel we have an example of a stone barrel-roof without any external roofing. In many other ruins, too, considerable portions of the neglected vault, when not wantonly destroyed, are perfect, for the proof of which we need not go further than Mr. Fergusson's woodcuts of Melrose, while we can remember no instance of the protective, or the inner wooden roof, still standing:—

As a general rule it may be said that length is the characteristic of English and height that of French cathedrals. The English architects always strove after the first, even at the expense of other obvious means of effect. The French, on the contrary, sacrificed everything to obtain height, which they considered the true element of sublimity. . . . Owing to their excess of height, the French cathedrals always appear short, and, what is worse, there is generally a look of frailty about them. . . . This is never the case in England. There is always a look of solidity and calm repose about our cathedrals that quite satisfies the mind. . . . Again, as regards the exterior, the English method, if fairly weighed, will be found even more satisfactory. French cathedrals always appear short externally, and their enormous roofs overpower and crush everything below them. The French architects never could obtain the beautiful skyline, or give value to their towers, as the English invariably did. As already remarked, the central spire at Amiens is as high as that of Salisbury, but is reduced by its position to a mere pinnacle. . . . Another advantage the English architects gained from the great length and moderate height of their cathedrals, was the power of projecting their transepts so as to give the greatest possible variety to their outline, and a play of light and shade perfectly unrivalled. . . . Again, a great charm of English cathedrals is their repose of outline. A French cathedral is surrounded by a multitude of pinnacles, flying buttresses, and other expedients to keep the building from falling. . . . These faults are as usual exaggerated at Cologne, but almost all French cathedrals exhibit them, though to a less extent. It would be difficult to find a single instance of these faults in England. . . . In comparing French with English cathedrals, this remarkable contrast in their respective dimensions should always be kept carefully in sight. Thus in the two contemporary cathedrals of Salisbury and Amiens, so often compared with one another, their length is very nearly the same, but the French church covers 71,000 square feet, the English only 35,000. The vault of the first is 152 feet in height, the latter only 85. Altogether, the cubic contents of Amiens are at least double those of Salisbury. . . . Thus in making a comparison between the two, the fair mode is to ask whether the cathedral of Amiens is finer than Salisbury would be if at least twice as large as it is. In like manner, in comparing the design of Lichfield with that of Cologne, we must recollect that the one covers 82,000 feet, the other only 34,000. The vault at Cologne is 152 feet high, that at Lichfield only 55. . . . The question is, would the design of Lichfield, if magnified four or five times, be as beautiful and as sublime as the great German cathedral? The great merit and the great secret of French architecture, as practised in the 13th century, is, that it is original; and the architects, uninfluenced by precedent, were doing the best they could to attain a perfectly definite aim, and doing this with an earnestness that has never been equalled, and on a scale that has seldom been surpassed. The English, on the other hand, did not invent the

style, and consequently were never quite free from foreign influence, but they applied it after a manner of their own, with a propriety and an elegance which, considering the scale of their buildings, render theirs perhaps the most pleasing and harmonious, and also the most picturesque, of all the varieties of the Gothic style. . . . Among the differences between the French and English architects there is none more remarkable than the feeling for the picturesque that always guided the latter, while it can hardly be traced in the works of our Continental neighbours. . . . And even in spite of all that modern vulgarity and bad taste have done to spoil the works of our forefathers, almost all our cathedrals still retain spots of green and alleys of tall trees, which, grouping so pleasingly with the towers and spires, give such value and beauty to the architecture. As a general rule they stand on the very outskirts of the town. . . . French cathedrals, on the other hand, always stand in the market-place in the very centre of the town, with no grass-plot in front, and no room for a park-like scene on any side. They are often too surrounded by shops and hovels, built up even against their walls. . . . nor do I know in all France or Germany of one single instance of that *religio loci*, that hallowed *temenos*, which is so marked a feature of the precincts of our English cathedrals.

This is followed by some admirable remarks on the English love for the country; yet we cannot but think the last statement of the above quotation too trenchant, founded as it is upon the condition of those cathedrals after the revolutionary storm has swept over them. *E.g.* Notre Dame, at Paris, had once its *temenos*; and at the Cathedral of Bordeaux, though in a town, there exists still a cloister of great solemnity. When we come to abbeys, such as Cluny was, the case is still stronger, and many of our cathedrals, as Durham and Canterbury, were Benedictine abbeys. The restoration of clerical marriage may have done much to preserve the accessory *temenos* in English cathedrals, owing to the need of greater accommodation which it created.

Here and there, we find points which in a second edition might be amended—the assertion, for example, that there is no other remarkable stone church in Norway, except Trondjem, ventured in oblivion of the very beautiful cathedral of Stavanger. But again we refrain. The Handbook, it will be observed, stops short at the age of the Renaissance. We sincerely hope that this curtailment implies a prospective third volume, similarly compiled and illustrated.

We cannot leave this part of the work without noticing a feature in which Mr. Fergusson stands out in most remarkable and meritorious contrast to many of the race of compilers. We mean the scrupulous minuteness with which he notes, under each one of his 850 woodcuts—comprising plans, sections, elevations, details, and perspectives—the source from which it is derived. We shall the better appreciate this good example when we remember how often the debt due to straightforwardness, if not absolutely forgotten, is paid in the niggardly form of an index of illustrations, the trouble of referring to which deters even the most intrepid reader. Some of the woodcuts had previously appeared, but by far the greater portion have been specially cut for the Handbook.

We have already stated that Mr. Fergusson throws his general conclusions into the shape of an Introduction, in which, after defining architecture, in contradistinction to civil engineering, as the "art of ornamental and ornamented construction," he sums up his canons of criticism, with great force, and at the same time brevity, under the heads of mass, stability, materials, construction, proportion, ornament, colour, conformity, imitation of nature, and ethnography. These various considerations lead up to the question of a new style, as the inevitable result of a general appreciation of the principles of progression. On this subject, Mr. Fergusson, with a manly confidence, ventures to predict—"If our civilization is what we believe it to be, that style will not only be perfectly suited to all our wants and desires, but also more beautiful and more perfect than any that has ever existed before." Brave words these, and true words too, we venture to think.

The weak point of Mr. Fergusson's premises—not of his conclusion, with which, in its general bearings, we cordially agree—is the distinction he draws between architecture and civil engineering. This he proposes to embody in a re-modelling of the two professions, which would give them co-ordinate position in the construction of important works. We do not think that the distinction, as he would have it, can be practically maintained without great inconvenience. No doubt, if there were no jealousy or self-seeking in the world, the partnership of the civil engineer to calculate the thrusts and weights, and of the architect to convert rude props into living pillars and airy buttresses and pinnacles, would be a spectacle of harmony such as can seldom be expected on this troublesome earth. But it could never really work. There is enough that is unsatisfactory in the condition of architecture both as an art and as a profession; but the remedy must be sought in the humbler way of making our architects, in themselves, better artists, and also better engineers, and by teaching them that their true aim is to combine the perfections of those two great phases of their vocation.

Mr. Fergusson forecasts, as a possible or even probable result of the new style whenever it may be brought forth, that, as in the middle ages, the ruder and smaller cathedrals of Basilican and Romanesque days were ruthlessly swept away to make room for the more aspiring, vast, and graceful piles of gothic art, so these in their turn will be called upon to give place to the future prodigies of the coming perfection. No doubt, if human progress followed the strict law of a mathematical theorem, such would be the case; but it is almost a truism to observe that the infinite variety of acting and counteracting influences on all sides renders

the mathematical progress of any question precisely that which it is almost certain that events never can follow. We are accordingly perfectly convinced, that, however superior to all preceding styles the future and perfect one may be, it will never, speaking generally, prove that superiority through the destruction of older cathedrals, Hotels de Ville, &c. The counteracting influence is the creation, thanks to modern civilization, to printing, engraving, increased locomotion, and so on, of the feeling of *association*—i.e., of archaeology made popular—owing to which buildings are valued, not for their mere capacity, or their mere beauty, nor even for their being local representatives of great events, but for the embodied story which they tell in the fact of their every stone, pavement, roof, and window, being the same stones, pavements, roofs, and windows which beheld those events. An earlier age of great activity but less general information, looked to the simple point of replacing the old inferior edifice, however hallowed, by a new and grander pile, in order to do honour to the *genius loci*. Now association has come in, and has become a science, and its influence makes itself felt in every way. Moreover, the change of ritual, even in Roman Catholic countries, makes the old mediæval buildings abundantly large for their destination; and it was no doubt, the lack of size, according to mediæval notions, as much as the deficiency in grandeur, which led to their frequent rebuildings. Assuredly the old cathedrals will be decorated, but they will never be replaced; and if congregational needs call for further space, that space will be provided by a huge new church in the future style, at the other end of the town, in rivalry, and not in substitution, of the older edifice. Still, as we have said, in his general protest in favour of a real style, embodying the wants of the living and not of any dead age, we thoroughly agree with the Essayist.

This necessity, indeed, making itself felt with more or less intensity, according to the reality of each man's own convictions, has been the aim, not only of all philosophic writers on architecture in modern days, but of all architects who worked in times when any predominant style was in fashion. Those who dreamed of Roman or Grecian as the one only possible type, did so because they thought that in Roman or Grecian they had attained the universal ideal; and they applied Mr. Fergusson's own test, by ruthlessly demolishing Gothic structures to make way for classical piles, where they had the means. So now, in like manner, though the general result of the Babel of schools is a wide-spread eclecticism, yet each follower of an exclusive style is probably himself acting on the conviction that his favourite forms are destined, when the rush of fashions shall have sobered down, to exact universal compliance, and to launch forth in a career of yet undreamed magnificence. For our own part, we do not shrink from the frank avowal that we are convinced that, in the style of the future (if that be ever destined to exist in action, and not alone in theory), very much will be borrowed from Gothic. We believe, and we trust, that it will incorporate the beauties and conveniences of all other styles—that it will be massive as Egyptian, or light as Saracenic, according to the practical demands of the specific structures, and, in each alike, proportioned like a Grecian temple. But that Gothic *must* be a main ingredient appears to us demonstrable from the fact that Gothic was the universal emanation of the mind of Christian Europe, or at least of its active portion, in the days when that polity which is now overspreading the world was cradled. It was European—it was Christian—it was conterminous with the chief regions of organized civil polity. With such an origin, we believe that it must prove itself a germinating power in the germination of Europe, in both hemispheres, just as the Wittenagemote has been the seed from which have sprung the Parliaments of Belgium, Holland, and Sardinia, Legislatures (such as they are) in Spain and Greece, the Congress of the United States, and the Colonial Assemblies of the Cape, Australia, and Jamaica.

The rock which we have struck upon has been eclecticism. But absorption is the thing to be aimed at as conducive to invention: and pointed architecture, we contend, displays powers of absorption not granted to any other style. By absorbing regularly, and inventing at random, nearly five centuries ago, it ran riot into flamboyant, or it shrivelled into perpendicular. But its middle days of simple dignity are still those from which to make another and a better start. The enterprise will have resources unknown to the fourteenth century. There will be the knowledge of all the architectures of all ages and countries, out of which to absorb a variety of materials, every day augmented to an extent almost bewildering; and there will be processes, gigantic as steam power, or minute as photography, to abridge labour, or to facilitate invention. The two things needful are, the man that will know how to use these powers rightly, and the public that will bid him put forth his strength.

POEMS BY W. R. CASSELS.*

IT is very pleasant to see a writer improve so rapidly and surely as Mr. Cassels seems to have done since he published *Idolon and other Poems*, six years ago. That book had in it the promise of better things, overlaid with many faults. The promise has been fulfilled, and the faults amended. Those first poems had, many of them, a melody of grace

which was very hopeful; and to that has been since added a careful finish, and terseness of expression, which has led to good success, particularly in the songs and sonnets—forms of poetry which (especially the former) are always the surest and severest tests of a man's real capabilities. Here are two little songs which seem to us excellent. The first has as much terseness as Cowley's love-poems, with a sweetness and quietness to which Cowley certainly never attained:—

AT PARTING.

I.
Peace! Let me go, or ere it be too late;
Dip not your arrows in the honey-mead;
Paint not the wound through which my heart doth bleed;
Leave me unmock'd, unpitied, to my fate—
Peace! Let me go.

II.
Think you that words can smooth my rugged track?
Words heal the stab your soft white hands have made,
Or stir the burthen on my bosom laid?
Winds shook not Earth from Atlas' bended back—
Peace! Let me go.

III.
What though it be the last time we shall meet—
Raise your white brow, and wreath your raven hair,
And fill with music sweet the summer air;
Not this again shall draw me to your feet—
Peace! Let me go.

IV.
No laurels from my vanquished heart shall wave
Round your triumphant beauty as you go.
Not thus adorn'd work out some other's woe—
Yet, if you will, pluck daisies from my grave!
Peace! Let me go.

Here is another. There is not much in it, perhaps; but all that is in it is clear and sweet, alike in sense and sound:—

I.
Love took me softly by the hand,
Love led me all the country o'er,
And showed me beauty in the land,
That I had never dreamt before—
Never before, Oh Love, sweet Love!

II.
There was a glory in the morn,
There was a calmness in the night,
A mildness by the south wind borne,
That I had never felt aught,
Never aught, Oh Love, sweet Love!

III.
But now it cannot pass away,
I see it wheresoe'er I go,
And in my heart by night and day
Its gladness waveth to and fro—
By night and day, Oh Love, sweet Love!

Save the "waveth to and fro," which is surely somewhat weak, as well as inapplicable to an emotion like "gladness," this song is complete.

We cannot deny, however, that the value of each of these poems is generally in inverse proportion to its length; and that Mr. Cassels seems, as yet at least, to want both dramatic power and vigorous thought enough to sustain a theme through even a few pages. *Mabel* is graceful and sweet, but too far removed from ordinary human experience to be really pathetic. *Guy of Warwick* is a good imitation of Tennyson's simpler style; but one misses that heavy iron roll of the verse, and those sudden flashes of light, too—bringing a whole scene out, hard and clear against the sky, by one well-chosen word—which make the simplicity of the *King Arthur* truly heroic.

Orpheus, too, is good; and yet not good enough. It wants that strength and pomp which are not to be given by fine words and long epithets (not that we accuse Mr. Cassels of such), but by individuality and freshness of thoughts and objects. It wants, in a word, exactly what Tennyson's *Ænone* has in every line, and what makes *Ænone* one of the most beautiful poems which have been written during the last half-century. To tell the truth, what real "effect" Mr. Cassels' *Orpheus* has, seems to us to arise from his having caught, and kept faithfully, that despairing cry of the mere name "Eurydice!" which forms the burden to Gluck's most glorious, yet most heartrending, lament of Orpheus. No blame to Mr. Cassels if that music was ringing in his ears. Once heard, how could it be forgotten? And what truer or nobler key-note could a poet find for such a theme?

Hardly so much praise is due to *Orion*. The passion of the blind giant is somewhat spasmodic, and certainly not clear in meaning. Deserting, from want of faith, the brave and simple grandeur of the old myths, Mr. Cassels has tried, as Mr. Horne did in his poem of the same name, to give strength by excitement and magniloquence, and by the introduction of a subjective element of thought, never in place in Greek myths, when put there by a modern. Let it be enough that Sophocles and Pindar, in the golden age of Greek thought, succeeded for awhile in harmonizing the objective myths with the trains of subjective thought which they suggested, and as it were opened the hearts of the old heroes to enter and dwell in them. They could dwell in them, more or less; for they were countrymen of theirs, of the same creed and blood—and yet not all even of them, for Euripides understood Odysseus even less than an English sailor would do. But an English cultivated man of the nineteenth century must remain humbly outside the myths, and take Sophocles' word for their meaning. Any attempt of ours to decipher or translate

* Poems. By Walter R. Cassels. Smith, Elder, and Co.

them will be probably as irrelevant and inhuman as old "Palamphus' Fables."

The majority of the poems are elegiac, in the strictest sense of the term, and therefore sad enough, and sometimes too sad; but their melancholy is never forced or obtrusive, and therefore must be accepted and respected as sincere. Only against one poem, *The Raven*, we must protest, as being, in spite of all its power, purposelessly painful, like Bürger's *Lenore*, and therefore not altogether morally worthy of the man who writes in the same volume *The Dark River*, and *Gone*. There is another short poem, too, *The Bittern*, which we might blame for the same purposeless sadness, were it not so very original and highly-finished that one overlooks faults of matter for the sake of excellence in manner. It has one other fault—it is half as long again as it should be. The first six stanzas are complete in themselves—the four last are mere superfluous comments and amplifications on what has been said already. But after all, this fault of "nimety," or too-muchness (as Coleridge named it), is common to all our younger poets. Forgetting how many men have attained fame by a single work, and how many more, who have written volume on volume, are now only remembered by some one of their many pieces—and that, perhaps, the one which they valued least—our poets, like our sermonizers, write, and write, and write, filling volumes as carelessly as they would buckets, as if Hippocrene were no sacred fountain, guarded by divinity itself, to be approached fearfully and sipped modestly, but some vulgar high-pressure street main, of which Apollo had lost the stop-cock.

Yet we do but jest. This deluge of scribbling is only a necessary evil which must accompany extended cultivation and free thought; and we would silence no man or woman. The parable of the wheat and the tares applies as fully to literature as to theology. Let both grow together till the harvest; for the sieve of Time is just to every book, and to each part of every book. The chaff will surely be blown away in good time, and the wheat gathered in for the use of future generations. Looking back upon the "lost literature" of past ages, one comforts oneself with this thought, and trusts that nothing has perished which ought to have endured—that by no miracle, but partly by men's rational desire to preserve and multiply copies of what they felt most precious, partly by that superintending Providence which can and does rid the world of so much rubbish, by fire and earthquake, moth and rust, the best things of antiquity are still in our hands. We willingly persuade ourselves that we have no need to regret the lost Decades of Livy, or the lost plays of Aristophanes—that we should be none the better for having more of Sappho and Anacreon—and that, for aught we know, Simonides' *Lament of Danae* was originally, like many a modern poem, half as long again as it should have been, but that wise Old Time, knowing with Hesiod how much better half is than the whole, has pressed it down to exactly the proper length.

So we leave Mr. Cassels, but only for a while. He must do more, and also do less; and we will hazard a prediction that he will at last do something which will not be forgotten.

THE CHURCH AND THE PHILOSOPHERS.*

THE merits and demerits of the eighteenth century have been of late years, among the *litterati* of France, a theme of perpetual controversy—of a controversy in which calm discussion has not seldom given place to acrimonious dispute. Indeed the combatants on either side have exhibited far more of what our neighbours are pleased to term *la verve Gauloise*, than of that other quality to which they lay especial claim under the title of *la courtoisie Française*. The student who contemplates all history from the dispassionate philosophic point of view, and regards any given period as a link in the great chain of causation, the necessary product of unalterable laws, may affect to look upon such a strife with contemptuous pity, and be disposed to echo the merry and wise old Scotch song which says—

What nonsense 'tis for folks to chide,
For what's been done afore 'em.

But in truth, the motive which animates and embitters the controversialists is not antiquarian zeal, but party-spirit. They explore old battle-fields, not to make a collection of rusty relics, but to find weapons for present conflict. The eighteenth century is on their lips, but the nineteenth century is uppermost in their thoughts. Accordingly, the so-called *Études Historiques* are mostly partisan pamphlets. We are stating a fact, but we neither regret nor condemn it. Many forgotten incidents are thus produced and exhibited in various lights, so that the impartial reader (if such there be) can draw his own conclusions. All controversies ultimately promote the good cause. The "sound and fury, signifying nothing," speedily evaporate, and there remains a residuum of truth. In our own language, it would be difficult to point out a single historical work which is not written in the spirit of a partisan. Men cannot speak of the Glorious Revolution, or the Great Rebellion, nay, even of the Peloponnesian War, without declaring for one side or the other. History is interesting in proportion to the number and closeness of the parallels drawn or suggested between the past and the present. No one can feel a lively sympathy with the deeds and the pas-

sions of former generations, without also sympathizing with those of his own time. The "dispassionate student" before mentioned is a mere hypothetical abstraction—a type yet unrealized.

In France, more especially, where the existing form of Government prevents all free expression of opinion, men resort to history as at once a pretext and a vehicle for allusive sarcasm and safe inuendo. And, of all past centuries, the eighteenth presents the most frequent and obvious points of resemblance with the present age. A reaction, violent in proportion to the violence of the Revolution, has re-established a despotism as absolute, and a hierarchy as insolent, as those which governed France in the days of Louis XIV., and the battle of religious and political freedom has all to be fought over again. This is why French literature teems with works on Rousseau, on D'Alembert and the Encyclopædists, on Arnaud and the Port Royalists, on Robespierre and the heroes of the Revolution. Hence, on the one hand, the deification of Louis Quatorze—on the other, the rehabilitation of Marat.

M. Lanfrey is a strong partisan, or rather, a faithful disciple. Voltaire is his leader, his hero, his Messiah. In him M. Lanfrey worships—we do not venture to translate the phrase—*l'Ironie s'incarnant dans un homme pour sauver le genre humain*. Voltaire and the philosophers saw and taught, in life and doctrine, the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth. From M. Lanfrey's book you would not suppose that their cause was ever hindered by any weakness, or disgraced by any violence, or that their opponents were ever actuated by any other motives than cruelty, avarice, and hypocrisy. According to him, Fénelon and Bossuet are quite unworthy of the world's admiration. The Jesuits have no redeeming virtues. All churchmen are knaves, except Pope Ganganelli, who suppressed the Jesuits, and whose portrait hangs in Voltaire's bedroom at Ferney; and Ganganelli himself was an intriguer—*n'a-t-il pas fait marché de la tiare?* In revenge, the Jesuits poisoned him; fordid he not soon die, and are not Jesuits capable of anything? *Probatum est*.

Philosophers, it seems, can be bigoted as well as churchmen. This one-sidedness is the great fault of the book. Nevertheless, if due allowance be made for the author's bias, it is a book which may be read with profit and pleasure, for it is an excellent digest of ponderous and difficult materials, lucid in arrangement and attractive in style. And if our spleen is sometimes moved by the gross partiality of the writer, yet, in the main, we cannot but sympathize with the cause which he is advocating—a cause still great and holy, in spite of its ridiculous association with tipsy Whigs—the cause of "Civil and Religious Liberty." M. Lanfrey would have done well to remember that the Church, as opposed to feudal monarchs and nobles, has rendered eminent services to the cause of civil liberty; and that the Jesuits themselves, as opposed to rigid pietists of other sects, have promoted the cause of religious liberty. The Massacre of St. Bartholomew and the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes were the work, not merely of bigoted kings and cruel priests, but also of fanatical mobs. Either measure would have been carried by an immense majority on the principle of universal suffrage. Again, the revolutionary leaders of 1792, in attempting to put in practice the doctrines of the Encyclopædists and to realize the dreams of Rousseau, established a godless, and therefore baseless, polity, which had no root in the public conscience, and speedily withered away. If "the philosophers" had seen the whole truth, their system would have remained to this day. Where is it now? Seeing, as they did, only a half-truth, they were omnipotent to destroy, but impotent to construct. The truth is neither with Voltaire nor with Bossuet, but between, and above, both. France will probably have to pass through many violent reactions before she finds her place of rest. Her parties have yet to learn "the falsehood of extremes."

A few more words on M. Lanfrey, and we have done. Unlike most French writers, he does not ignore or depreciate the influence of foreign nations. The German reformers and the English philosophers are taken into account by him, though scarcely with adequate emphasis, and obviously at second hand. We have not room to specify his inaccuracies, which are, indeed, as numerous as the sentences which he devotes to Bacon, Bolingbroke, Pope, and Hume. On other points, where he has ample knowledge, he often deliberately sacrifices truth and consistency to epigram and antithesis. But, after all qualifications are made, the book is a good book, full of matter, abundantly suggestive of thought, and well deserving of the attention of every cultivated English reader.

MISS MURRAY'S LETTERS ON AMERICA.

Second Notice.

HAVING in a former notice occupied ourselves exclusively with Miss Murray's views on Slavery, we may now set that topic aside, and indicate the other contents of her Letters—contents which can rouse no opposition, and which may furnish very agreeable reading for persons of all shades of opinion. The quality that most strikes us in these pages is the perfect sincerity of the writer. She not only records her actual impressions without trying to make them accord with certain pre-conceived notions, but in her language there is a perfect absence of that striving after effect which, sometimes in the way of "smartness," and sometimes in the way of "profundity," distorts the sentences of travel writers. The

* *L'Église et les Philosophes au Dix-huitième Siècle*. Par P. Lanfrey. Paris. 1855.

consequence of this truthfulness and simplicity is, that we follow her through the States with that unmisgiving pleasure with which we listen to a trusted and intelligent friend pouring forth at the fireside the impressions of his journeyings. A sensible and accomplished Englishwoman tells us a sensible and pleasant story. There is nothing very striking about it, nothing very novel; but we listen to the end without a moment's fatigue.

Miss Murray first went to Boston, and seems to have been quite charmed with her reception there:—

When people are cultivated and warm-hearted, I soon forget and forgive their habits of making all our vowels double, and even the nasal tone of some among them. There is a genuine characteristic frankness here which is very pleasant. There is no reason why we should treat our fellow-beings that happen to be new acquaintances, with less kindness than dogs or horses. I am afraid this is a fault in our national character. I believe we are honest and sincere, and that is better than mere surface politeness; but we lose so much time in our cautious civilities, that in some cases life is half expended before we dare exchange mere acquaintanceship for a warmer feeling. The Americans, who are a go-ahead people in all their concerns, appear to me to carry their hearts in their hands; this is very pleasant to a stranger coming suddenly among them; and it is difficult for me to "realize" that it is only fourteen days to-morrow since I landed on these shores, so many homes and hearts upon it have already been opened to me.

More extended observation, however, greatly chilled this enthusiasm. The gratuitous rudeness which Americans so commonly mistake for Republican independence, forced itself too often on her notice; nor did the social condition of the men and women present so pleasing an aspect when she came to know more of it:—

If countenances are "a history as well as a prophecy," the national expression of faces in the North as contrasted with those in the South, tell a strange, and to me an unexpected story, as regards the greatest happiness principle of the greatest number! Of course, it must be borne in mind that no rules are without exception; but, oh, the haggard, anxious, melancholy, restless, sickly, hopeless faces I have seen in the Northern States—in the rail-cars, on the steamboats, in the saloons, and particularly in the ladies' parlour. There is beauty of feature and complexion with hardly any individuality of character. Nothing like simplicity, even among children, after ten years of age—hot-house, forced, impetuous beings, the *almighty dollars* the incentive and only guide to activity and appreciation. Women care that their husbands should gain gold, that they may spend it in dress and ostentation; and the men like that their wives should appear as queens, whether they rule well, or ill, or at all; yet it is certain that I have made the acquaintance, and that I value the friendship, of superior women in the North, and if I should be thought to have expressed myself with too much severity, I appeal to their candour and judgment; and being American cousins, they have the Anglo-Saxon love of Truth, and will not spurn her even in an unveiled form, or receive her ungraciously even when thus presented. I have reason to speak gratefully, and warmly do I feel, and anxiously do I venture these observations, which may seem even harsh and ungrateful. I do not yet know much of the Southern ladies; but from Washington to this place I have been struck by a general improvement of countenance and manner in the white race, and this in spite of the horrors which accompany the misuse of tobacco. If the gentlemen of this part of the country would only acquire habits of self-control and decency in this matter, they would indeed become the *Preux Chevaliers* of the United States, as their hills and valleys may prove the store-houses and gardens of the Union. May their sons and daughters look to these things, and increase in wealth, prosperity, virtue, and happiness!

And elsewhere:—

In this country, I hear that, "though it has no queen, *all the women are queens*." I should rather call them playthings—dolls; things treated as if they were unfit or unwilling to help themselves or others; and while we in England have nearly cast aside arts of the toilet worthy only of dolls, I see here false brows, false bloom, false hair, false everything!—not always, but too frequently. Dress in America, as an almost general rule, is full of extravagance and artificiality; and while women show such a want of reliance upon their native powers of pleasing, their influence in society will be more nominal than real.

Respecting American hotels, we have this quiet but conclusive sentence:—

Mr. Robert Chambers was either much mistaken or grossly deceived when he published a letter asserting the absence of imposition at the hotels. For less real comfort, I have as yet been made to pay everywhere (with the one exception of Cleveland on Lake Erie) far more than in England; upon an average at about ten pounds a week for my maid and self, taking our meals at the public table, and without a private sitting-room. This exceeds anything I ever paid in any country in Europe; and there is neither appeal nor redress. Whether you dine out every day or not, no difference is made in your hotel expenses. It is true you may generally console yourself by the use of gorgeous mirrors, silk curtains, and splendid carpets; but few travellers wish for this kind of accommodation.

Miss Murray not only kept her eyes open for men and institutions—her cultivated mind found abundance of exercise in noting all the botanical, geological, and zoological peculiarities which fell in her way. Botany seems to be her favourite study, and the endless varieties America presents are recorded with quiet enthusiasm. Had her Letters been less unpretending, we might have objected to the brief and catalogue style in which many of her observations are made, and which renders them intelligible only to the instructed. A little more description would have greatly enhanced the interest of these notices. Here is a sentence about the maple trees:—

Driving home, I saw many little wooden troughs under the trees in the forest; I thought at first that they were for pigs to feed from, but they are receptacles for the maple sugar. Young trees produce the whitest and purest syrup; and a frosty night, followed by a bright sunny day, is the only weather which induces a good flow of sap. I do not see why we could not make maple sugar in England, unless it is that the sun is not sufficiently powerful during our spring.

Miss Murray throws in, as if it were quite unimportant, the qualification respecting our want of sufficient solar light; but we

believe that this is all important, for it is only under the influence of solar light that the organic changes which develop sugar ever take place. If our sun were powerful enough to make maple sugar, maple sugar we should have had long before this.

We have no space for more quotations. Those already given will serve to indicate pretty accurately the style and staple of the work, but before sending our readers to it, we must borrow, for the sake of naturalists, the following fact about the cow-bird:—

It seems the cow-bird in this country is as indolent a mother as our cuckoo: she lays an egg in the nests of other birds, and leaves it to take its chance in a strange family. A species of linnet is wise enough to find out the liberty taken at her expense: in one instance she inserted another nest above the intruded egg, so as to leave it unhatched; in another, the linnet contrived to sink the cowbird's progeny below her own eggs.

It is less remarkable that the cow-bird should, in America, manifest the same exceptional disregard to all maternal duties that the cuckoo does in England, than that the American linnet should be so 'cute and wide-awake. The English linnet not only hatches the young intruder, but is so excessively proud of the size of the young cuckoo, that she neglects her own chicks to show it an improper favouritism.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

GEOLOGY.—KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON.—PROFESSOR TENNANT, F.G.S., will give a Course of LECTURES ON GEOLOGY. To commence on Friday morning, January 25th, at nine o'clock, and to be continued on each succeeding Wednesday and Friday at the same hour.
R. W. JELF, D.D., Principal.

CITY OF LONDON LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY,
2, ROYAL EXCHANGE BUILDINGS.
Notice is hereby given, that the Dividend, at the rate of 2s. 2½d. per share, will be Payable at this office on or after 28th January instant, between the hours of eleven and three.
EDWARD FREDERICK LEES, Secretary.
Dated this 14th January, 1856.

THE ASYLUM LIFE ASSURANCE OFFICE,
72, CORNHILL, LONDON.
Established 1824.

Policies on Healthy and Diseased Lives, at Home and Abroad, for Civil, Military, and Naval Employments.
The Office being on purely Proprietary principles, no Partnership among Policy-Holders is involved.

For Prospectuses, Proposal Papers, &c., apply to
MANLEY HOPKINS, Resident Director.

[Established 1841.]
MEDICAL INVALID, AND GENERAL LIFE OFFICE,
25, PALM MALL.
EMPOWERED BY SPECIAL ACT OF PARLIAMENT.

By the Annual Report for 1853, it appeared that the number of Policies then in force was 3434, insuring £1,337,500, and yielding an Income of £55,207.
At the Fourteenth Annual Meeting, held on 29th November, 1855, it was shown that on the 30th June last—

The Number of Policies in force was 5356
The Amount Insured was . . . £2,556,002 5s. 2d.
The Annual Income was . . . £103,711 18s. 11d.

Two Bonuses have been declared (in 1849 and 1853), adding nearly 2 per cent. per annum on the average to sums assured, and by which a Policy of £1000 issued in 1842 on a healthy life is now increased to £1280.

Profits divided every five years.
Assurances are effected at home or abroad on healthy lives, at as moderate rates as the most recent data will allow.
Indian Assurances at very moderate rates, and great facilities given to Assurers.
Invalid lives assured on scientifically constructed tables.
Policies issued free of Stamp duty and every charge but the Premiums.
Agents wanted for vacant places.

Prospectuses, Forms of Proposals, and every other information, may be obtained of the Secretary at the Chief office, or on application to any of the Society's Agents in the Country.
C. DOUGLAS SINGER, Secretary.

This day is published, a Second Edition, crown 8vo, cloth, price 7s. 6d.

LECTURES TO LADIES ON PRACTICAL SUBJECTS.
"These men, themselves an honour to their times, do honour to woman by giving her the benefit of the best thoughts of many minds."—*Edinburgh Review*, Jan. 1856.
"By some of the highest minds of the day, and the most active in the advancement of their fellow-creatures."—*Spectator*, Oct. 27, 1855.

Cambridge: MACMILLAN and Co. London: BELL and DALDY.

12mo, price 3s. 6d.
THE TURKISH CAVALRY DRILL: in Turkish and English.
Compiled by G. A. HARTMAN, Major, Commanding 2nd Regiment Cavalry, Turkish Contingent.
London: JOHN W. PARKER and Son, West Strand.

This day, price 3s. 6d.
THE RIFLE. Its Effects on the War. On National Military Organization; and Preparation for Defence. By JOHN LE COUTEUR, F.R.S., M.S.A., Colonel and Adjutant-General Royal Jersey Militia.
London: JOHN W. PARKER and Son, West Strand.

On the 1st of February, 8vo, 7s. 6d.
THE NEW NAVY LIST, AND GENERAL RECORD OF THE SERVICES OF OFFICERS of the Royal Navy and Royal Marines, corrected to the present time. Conducted by JOSEPH ALLEN, R.N.

. This number of the NEW NAVY LIST will be found especially interesting, from the many fresh notices, and additions to the Services of Officers relative to the recent achievements of the British Navy.

London: JOHN W. PARKER and Son, West Strand.

This day, Part II., with numerous Illustrations, 8vo, 16s.
ELEMENTS OF CHEMISTRY: Theoretical and Practical. By WILLIAM ALLEN MILLER, M.D., F.R.S., Professor of Chemistry, King's College, London.

PART I., 8vo, 10s. 6d.

To be completed in Three Parts.

London: JOHN W. PARKER and Son, West Strand.

BULL'S LIBRARY, 19, HOLLES STREET.—Just Published, a Catalogue of the Principal Works now in circulation at this extensive Library gratis, and sent post free on application.

BULL, HUXTON, and Co., 19, Holles-street, Cavendish-square.

Now ready, gratis and postage free,

A LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL NEW AND CHOICE BOOKS IN CIRCULATION AT MUDIE'S SELECT LIBRARY.
Also a List of Surplus Copies of recent Works Withdrawn from Circulation, and offered at greatly Reduced Prices for Cash.

CHARLES EDWARD MUDIE, 510, New Oxford-street, London; and 76, Cross-street, Manchester.

CHARCOAL DIGESTIVE BISCUITS.—(Bird's Patent.)—An agreeable and efficacious diet for dyspeptic invalids—a prophylactic against diarrhoea, dysentery, and cholera.—In canisters, price 2s. 6d. each.—Wholesale agents: Barclays, Farringdon-street; Sanger, 150, Oxford-street; Burrows, Houndsditch; Turner's, 111, High-street, Boro'; and retail by order at all Chemists, Italian Warehouses, and Medicine Vendors.

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY ELECTION.—Mr. DENMAN'S LONDON COMMITTEE will MEET DAILY at the Trafalgar Hotel, Spring-Gardens, to which place all communications may be addressed.

TO THE MEMBERS OF THE SENATE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE.

GENTLEMEN,

I HAVE been urged in the most flattering manner by a very large number of your body to offer myself as a candidate for the seat in Parliament left vacant by the lamented death of your late beloved representative, Mr. Goulburn.

Though fully sensible how far I fall short of what your representative ought to be, I feel persuaded that the opinions which I hold are those of the majority of your body. I am not aware that there is any probability of a candidate coming forward who will represent these opinions except myself. I therefore presume to ask for your support.

Before stating my opinions, I wish it to be distinctly understood that, if I am elected, I must go to the discharge of my duties unfettered by pledges—which I hold to be unconstitutional and mischievous.

I am a sincere Member of the Church of England, and I consider it as the most important function of the University to educate the clergy and gentry, and through them all classes, in the principles of true religion.

I am entirely free from all ties of party and from party views. My opinions generally are Liberal, but Conservative. The ability and judgment with which the affairs of the country have been administered by the present Government in most trying times would render me desirous to give them my support.

On the question of war or peace, it would be impossible for me, at this moment, to express any opinion which the events of the next few weeks might not modify. But I may say, generally, that for the safety and honour of this country, and for the good of mankind, I earnestly hope that no efforts will be spared to prosecute the war with vigour until a solid and well-secured peace be obtained. When such a peace has been concluded, I trust that the Government of this country will never be allowed to suffer our military and naval establishments to fall to the low ebb to which they had sunk at the commencement of the present war.

I should gladly support such measures as would best enable the University to carry out its own progressive improvement and aid its efficiency as a great instrument of liberal education. I am, however, sincerely attached to the system of a body of independent colleges, free from all unnecessary external control or interference.

I should be disposed to consider favourably any sound and well-considered plan for giving to the University a real and complete representative system.

I have the honour to be,

Yours faithfully,

GEORGE DENMAN, M.A.

14, Eaton Place South, London, Jan. 19, 1856.

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY ELECTION.—The following gentlemen constitute Mr. DENMAN'S CAMBRIDGE COMMITTEE, with power to add to their number:—

Chairman.—The Rev. JAMES CARMELI, D.D., Master of Christ's College.

The Rev. Robert Phelps, D.D., Master of Sidney Sussex College

J. T. Abdy, Esq., D.C.L., Regius Professor of Law, Trinity Hall

H. A. Woodham, Esq., D.C.L., late Fellow of Jesus College

G. Leapingwell, Esq., D.C.L., Corpus Christi College, Esquire Bedell

W. W. Fisher, Esq., M.D., Downing Professor of Medicine, Downing College

W. H. Drosier, Esq., M.D., Senior Fellow of Caius College

Rev. W. H. Bateson, B.D., Fellow of St. John's College, Public Orator

Rev. R. Willis, M.A., Jacksonian Professor of Natural and Experimental Philosophy, Caius College

A. Amos, Esq., M.A., Downing Professor of the Laws of England, Downing College

Rev. J. Grote, M.A., Senior Fellow of Trinity College, Professor of Moral Philosophy

Rev. J. Cumming, M.A., F.R.S., late Fellow of Trinity College, Professor of Chemistry

George Pryme, Esq., M.A., late Fellow of Trinity College, Professor of Political Economy

Rev. Theod. Preston, M.A., Fellow of Trinity College, Lord Almoner's Reader in Arabic

Rev. J. Romilly, M.A., Senior Fellow of Trinity College, Registrar

Rev. J. Shaw, B.D., Fellow of Christ's College

Rev. T. Overton, B.D., Fellow of St. John's College

C. C. Babington, Esq., M.A., St. John's College

W. H. Besant, Esq., M.A., Fellow and Assistant Tutor of St. John's College

Rev. E. B. Blore, M.A., Fellow of Trinity College

G. Brimley, Esq., M.A., Librarian of Trinity College

Rev. W. Haigh Brown, Fellow and Tutor of Pembroke College

Rev. S. Cheetham, M.A., Fellow of Christ's College

Rev. W. G. Clark, M.A., Fellow and Assistant Tutor of Trinity College

Rev. E. M. Cope, M.A., Fellow and Assistant Tutor of Trinity College

Rev. J. Croker, M.A., Fellow and late Tutor of Caius College

Rev. C. J. Elliott, M.A., late Fellow of St. John's College

Rev. W. M. Cusson, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of Christ's College

Rev. R. Ferguson, M.A., Fellow of Pembroke College

Philip Frere, Esq., M.A., Fellow and Tutor of Downing College

Rev. P. Frost, M.A., late Fellow of St. John's College

J. L. Hammond, Esq., M.A., Fellow and Assistant Tutor of Trinity College

Rev. R. Hawthorn, M.A., St. Peter's College

G. Craufurd Heath, Esq., M.A., Senior Fellow of Trinity College

Rev. J. Lamb, M.A., Fellow of Caius College

Rev. P. J. A. Hort, Fellow of Trinity College

Rev. H. Latham, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of Trinity Hall

Rev. J. E. B. Mayor, M.A., Fellow and Assistant Tutor of St. John's College

Rev. H. A. J. Munro, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of Trinity College

H. W. Pemberton, Esq., M.A., Trinity College

J. B. Phear, Esq., M.A., Fellow of Clare Hall

Rev. Joseph Power, M.A., Fellow of Clare Hall, and Librarian of the University

Rev. J. Pullen, Esq., M.A., late Fellow and Tutor of Corpus Christi College

Rev. G. Skinner, M.A., late Fellow and Tutor of Jesus College

Rev. B. Smith, M.A., Fellow of St. Peter's College

Rev. W. M. Snell, M.A., Fellow of Corpus Christi College

Rev. E. R. Theod. M.A., Fellow of King's College

Rev. C. Townley, M.A., Trinity College

E. Walker, Esq., M.A., late Fellow of Trinity College

William Walton, Esq., M.A., Trinity College

H. W. Watson, Esq., M.A., Fellow of Trinity College

Rev. T. W. Sharpe, M.A., Fellow and Assistant Tutor of Christ's College

Rev. Joseph Wolstenholme, M.A., Fellow and Assistant Tutor of Christ's College

Rev. J. M. CROKER, M.A., Fellow of Caius College,

Rev. H. A. J. MUNRO, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of

Trinity College,

Hon. Secs.

Committee-room, 37, Trinity-street, Cambridge.

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY ELECTION.

46, Chester-square, 22nd January, 1856.
Dear Bunbury,—In reply to your letter of yesterday's date, I am happy to tell you that I am not one of your opponents, and am not going to stand for the University of Cambridge.

The facts of the case are simply these:—On Saturday morning I received the very unexpected information that some persons of considerable influence in Cambridge and elsewhere wished me to come forward as a candidate. I replied that, if they would bring me a requisition sufficiently weighty to justify my coming forward, I would do so. My friends, however, soon found that they were too late in the field, and that such men as yourself, upon whom, perhaps, they might have counted if you had been applied to in the first instance for me, were already actively engaged on one side or the other. I am, therefore, absolved from any obligation to move further in the matter.

You will probably be surprised that I should have consented, even conditionally, to come forward, for I have more work to do than I know how to get through; and there is no one, I imagine, to whom personally a Parliamentary life would be less attractive. But there are social questions to which, and to the legislation about which, I have of late years given much attention; and it seems to me (perhaps with the captiousness of a bystander) that these questions are not adequately discussed in Parliament; and that even the voice of one additional person who cares about them might be valuable. I felt it, therefore, to be a duty not to reject such an opportunity of becoming a candidate, whatever presumption there might be in seeking to represent a constituency who may justly demand to have the first men in the country as their representatives.

I am thoroughly glad, however, that the burden of contest is not upon my shoulders, but upon the far stronger and abler ones of Mr. George Denman, to whom I beg to tender my vote.

I remain, my dear Bunbury,

Ever faithfully yours,

ARTHUR HELPS.

E. H. Bunbury, Esq., Chairman of Mr. Denman's London Committee.

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY ELECTION.—The following gentlemen form Mr. DENMAN'S LONDON COMMITTEE (with power to add to their number):—

Chairman.—E. H. BUNBURY, Esq., late Fellow of Trinity College

Vice-Chairman.—The Rev. J. G. LONSDALE, Trinity College, Canon of Lichfield, &c.

G. B. Airy, Esq., F.R.S., Astronomer Royal, late Fellow of Trinity College

The Rev. H. A. Alford, B.D., late Fellow of Trinity College

R. B. Armstrong, Esq., Q.C., late Fellow of St. John's College

D. T. Ansted, Esq., F.R.S., late Fellow of Jesus College

C. Babbage, Esq., F.R.S., Trinity College

W. F. Beadon, Esq., St. John's College

M. B. Begbie, Esq., Fellow of St. Peter's College

W. L. Birkbeck, Esq., late Fellow of Trinity College

The Rev. J. W. Blackley, D.D., late Fellow of Trinity College

John Elijah Blunt, Esq., Trinity College

Philip Pleydell Bouverie, Esq., Trinity College

J. G. Bowstead, Esq., late Fellow of Pembroke College

Rev. W. H. Brookfield, Trinity College

Douglas Brown, Esq., Trinity College

T. B. Burcham, Esq., late Fellow of Trinity College

Charles Burton, Esq., Trinity College

The Rev. Burgh Ryan, late Fellow of King's College

The Rev. A. M. Campbell, late Fellow of St. John's College

George Chance, Esq., Trinity College

Patrick Colquhoun, LL.D., St. John's College

E. H. J. Craufurd, Esq., M.P., Trinity College

E. S. Crenay, Esq., late Fellow of King's College

The Rev. J. Llewellyn Davies, Fellow of Trinity College

W. C. D. Deighton, Esq., Fellow of Queen's College

The Hon. R. Denman, Trinity College

The Hon. and Rev. L. W. Denman, Magdalene College

J. Dent Dent, Esq., M.P., Trinity College

T. E. Dicey, Esq., Trinity College

Edward Ellice, Esq., M.P., Trinity College

T. F. Ellis, Esq., F.R.S., late Fellow of Trinity College

F. Ellis, Esq., Trinity College

The Rev. John Evans, Pembroke College, Secretary of the Christian Knowledge Society

F. S. Flood, Esq., Trinity College

The Rev. J. G. C. Fussell, Trinity College

J. M. Goodeve, Esq., St. John's College, Professor of Natural Philosophy, &c., King's College, London

The Rev. T. G. Hall, late Fellow and Tutor of Magdalene College, Professor of Mathematics, King's College, London

T. E. Headlam, Esq., M.P., Trinity College

Arthur Helps, Esq., Trinity College

Edward Holland, Esq., M.P., Trinity College

The Hon. C. Howard, M.P., Trinity College

J. Jervis, Esq., Trinity Hall

W. Jones Lloyd, Esq., Trinity College

The Rev. B. H. Kennedy, D.D., Head Master of Shrewsbury School, late Fellow of St. John's College

J. A. Kinglake, Sergeant-at-Law, Trinity College

R. G. Latham, M.D., F.R.S., late Fellow of King's College

J. H. Law, Esq., late Fellow of King's College

Effingham Lawrence, Esq., late Fellow of Trinity College

J. G. Shaw Lefevre, Esq., F.R.S., late Fellow of Trinity College

John Locke, Esq., Trinity College

C. B. Locock, Esq., Trinity College

The Right Hon. F. B. Macaulay, M.P., F.R.S., late Fellow of Trinity College

H. J. Sumner Maine, Esq., LL.D., late Regius Professor of Laws, Trinity Hall

Henry Malden, Esq., Professor of Greek, University College, London, late Fellow of Trinity College

A. T. Malkin, Esq., Trinity College

E. H. Maltby, Esq., Trinity College

Horace Mansfield, Esq., late Fellow of Trinity College

W. W. Pearson, Esq., Trinity College

C. de la Pryme, Esq., Trinity College

F. C. Penrose, Esq., Magdalene College

R. Perry, Esq., Trinity College

Richard Potter, Esq., late Fellow of Queen's College, Professor of Mathematics at University College, London

C. J. Preston, Esq., Downing College

The Rev. F. Rendall, Harrow School, late Fellow of Trinity College

The Right Hon. Sir John Romilly, Master of the Rolls, Trinity College

K. W. Rothman, M.D., Senior Fellow of Trinity College

The Right Hon. Sir Edward Ryan, F.R.S., Trinity College

J. Miller Smethurst, Esq., Trinity College

C. G. Smith, Esq., Clare Hall

The Hon. W. Spring Rice, Trinity College

The Hon. C. Spring Rice, Trinity College

John Sykes, Esq., Fellow of Pembroke College

W. J. Taylor, Esq., Trinity College

Tom Taylor, Esq., late Fellow of Trinity College

Martin Thackeray, Esq., late Fellow of King's College

H. Thompson, M.D., late Fellow of Trinity College

Henry Thring, Esq., late Fellow of Magdalene College

The Rev. C. J. Vaughan, D.D., Head Master of Harrow, late Fellow of Trinity College

G. S. Venables, Esq., late Fellow and Tutor of Jesus College

C. M. Vials, Esq., Trinity College

H. W. Watson, Esq., Fellow of Trinity College

J. Westlake, Esq., Fellow of Trinity College

The Rev. Robert Whiston, late Fellow of Trinity College

H. Wilbraham Esq., Fellow of Trinity College

The Hon. Mr. Justice Vaughan Williams, Trinity College

The Hon. Vice-Chancellor Sir William Page Wood, late Fellow of Trinity College

J. Woolley, M.D., late Fellow of St. John's College

J. Worledge, Esq., late Fellow of Trinity College

H. T. Wrath, Esq., Fellow of St. John's College

E. Yardley, Esq., late Fellow of Magdalene College

J. M. KEMBLE, Esq., Trinity College, Hon. Sec.

COLBURN'S NEW MONTHLY MAGAZINE.—The February number will be ready on the 31st.
CHAPMAN and HALL, 193, Piccadilly.

BENTLEY'S MISCELLANY. FOR FEBRUARY.
On the 31st.
London: RICHARD BENTLEY, New Burlington-street.

DIGESTION AND ITS DERANGEMENTS. By T. K. CHAMBERLAIN, M.D., Physician to St. Mary's Hospital, and Lecturer on Medicine at St. Mary's Medical School.
JOHN CHURCHILL, New Burlington-street.

NORTH BRITISH REVIEW.—No. XLVIII.—FEBRUARY.
Price 6s.
CONTENTS.

- I.—FRANCE AND SCOTLAND.
- II.—COLOUR BLINDNESS.
- III.—SCOTTISH SCHOOLS FOR THE MIDDLE CLASSES.
- IV.—BUNSEN'S SIGNS OF THE TIMES.
- V.—METTRAY AND RED HILL.
- VI.—BEN JONSON.
- VII.—RECENT SERMONS—SCOTTISH, ENGLISH, AND IRISH.
- VIII.—HOTELS.
- IX.—ITALY.

Edinburgh: W. P. KENNEDY. London: HAMILTON, ADAMS, & CO.

Now ready, a New Edition, in Fcap. 8vo, price 3s. 6d. cloth,
MANUAL OF CIVIL LAW, for the use of Schools, and more especially of Candidates for the Civil Service: consisting of an Epitome in English of the Institutes of Justinian, carefully expurgated; with an Introductory Chapter. By E. E. HUMPHREYS, LL.D., Head Master of Cheltenham Grammar School. Second Edition, carefully revised.

By the same Author, in Fcap. 8vo, price 3s. 6d.
MANUAL OF POLITICAL SCIENCE. Second Edition.
London: LONGMAN, BROWN, GREEN, and LONGMANS.

MR. S. W. BAKER'S WORKS ON CEYLON.

Just published, in 8vo, with Six coloured Plates, price 15s.

EIGHT YEARS' WANDERINGS IN CEYLON. By S. W. BAKER, Esq.

"This book is an interesting and valuable contribution to our knowledge of an important colony. The politician and the capitalist, as well as the sportsman and the student of nature, may find in Mr. Baker's pages much matter well worthy of attentive reading."—*Saturday Review*.

"The reader who merely seeks for a few hours' amusement will find Mr. Baker's book full of entertaining anecdotes concerning the people, the hunting, the shooting, and all the out-of-door pursuits of beautiful Taprobane; while he who is seeking for an emigrant's home in a tropical island will gather a rich harvest of sterling information concerning the farming, the mining, and other industrial occupations of the island."—*Gardener's Chronicle*.

By the same Author, in 8vo, with Illustrations, price 14s.
THE RIFLE AND THE HOUND IN CEYLON.
London: LONGMAN, BROWN, GREEN, and LONGMANS.

Just published, in Crown 8vo, price 5s. cloth,
EVENING RECREATIONS: or, Samples from the Lecture Room. Edited by the Rev. JOHN HAMFDEN GURNEY, M.A., Rector of St. Mary's, Marylebone.

LIST OF LECTURES.

- English Descriptive Poetry, by the Rev. H. ALFORD.
Recollections of St. Petersburg, by the Rev. C. M. BIRRELL.
Sir Thomas More, by C. BUXTON, Esq.
The Fall of Mexico, by the Rev. J. H. GURNEY.
The Starry Heavens, by the Rev. BROWNLOW MAITLAND.
The House of Commons; its Struggles and Triumphs, by G. K. RICKARDS, Esq.
John Bunyan, by the Rev. E. J. ROSE.
The Reformation, by the Rev. A. P. STANLEY.

By the Rev. J. H. GURNEY, lately published, in Fcap. 8vo,
ST. LOUIS AND HENRI IV.: being a Second Series of Historical Sketches, price 6s.
London: LONGMAN, BROWN, GREEN, and LONGMANS.

MADAME I. PFEIFFER'S NEW TRAVELS.

Just Published, in Two Volumes post 8vo, price 21s. cloth,

A LADY'S SECOND JOURNEY ROUND THE WORLD; from London to the Cape of Good Hope, Borneo, Java, Sumatra, Celebes, Ceram, the Moluccas, &c., California, Panama, Peru, Ecuador, and the United States. By INA PFEIFFER, Authoress of "A Lady's Journey Round the World," &c.

"There is surely no little entertainment to be had from the narrative of a lady who has eaten boa-constrictor cutlets, who has sailed in a hollow tree, who has had an audience of the sushunan, and has felt cold on Chimborazo. The pleasure is the greater when the lady is, like Madame Pfeiffer, gentle, sensible, and womanly, a lover of travel and change, but not less for that a perfect woman. She describes faithfully whatever she sees, and loves honesty and justice. . . . Our extract shows the book to be a pleasant one, and there are few readers who will not acquire by help of it some welcome addition to their stock of anecdote and information."—*Examiner*.

London: LONGMAN, BROWN, GREEN, and LONGMANS.

THE SCIENCE OF CHEMISTRY POPULARISED.

In Two Volumes, crown 8vo, with 148 Woodcuts, price 21s.

THE PHASIS OF MATTER: being an Outline of the Discoveries and Applications of Modern Chemistry. By T. LINDLEY KEMP, M.D., Author of the "Natural History of Creation," "Indications of Instinct," &c.

"We believe that while it is well worth the attention of the professional student, it will be found of the greatest value to the general scholar, and those connected with any of the numerous professions and trades which owe their improvement to chemistry and the allied sciences."—*Lancet*.

"The purpose of this work is to supply to the general scholar and the man of the world a competent knowledge of chemistry, such as the smaller and more elementary works do not provide, and such as the larger and more technical and comprehensive works are neither intended to give nor likely to be referred to for by the general reader."—*Builder*.

London: LONGMAN, BROWN, GREEN, and LONGMANS.

THE REV. THOMAS MILNER'S WORKS ON RUSSIA AND THE SEAT OF WAR.

In One Volume, post 8vo, with Plate, price 10s. 6d.

RUSSIA: Its Rise and Progress, Tragedies and Revolutions. By the Rev. T. MILNER, M.A., F.R.S.

By the same Author,

THE BALTIC, ITS GATES, SHORES, AND CITIES: with a Notice of the White Sea. Post 8vo, with Maps, 10s. 6d.

THE CRIMEA, its Ancient and Modern History: the Khans, the Sultans, and the Czar: with Sketches of its Scenery and Population. Post 8vo, Maps, 10s. 6d.

"In no one volume, or indeed in all the volumes put together that have fallen in our way, will so comprehensive, so striking, or so readable an account of the Crimea be obtained, as in this book, or an account (which after all is the great test) that leaves so distinct an impression on the reader's mind. . . . As a handbook of the history, Russian Policy, and natural productions of the Crimea, this is the VOLUME, as well for the matter as for the manner in which it is set forth."—*Spectator*.

London: LONGMAN, BROWN, GREEN, and LONGMANS.

In One Volume, Fcap. 4to, price 28s. cloth, gilt top,
THE LIFE OF LUTHER, in Forty-eight Historical Engravings. By GUSTAV KORKIO. With Explanations by ARCHDEACON HARE: Continued by SUSANNA WINKWORTH.

London: LONGMAN, BROWN, GREEN, and LONGMANS.

M'CULLOCH ON TAXATION.

Lately published, in 8vo, price 12s.

A TREATISE ON THE PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICAL INFLUENCE OF TAXATION AND THE FUNDING SYSTEM. By J. R. M'CULLOCH, Esq. Second Edition, corrected, enlarged, and improved.
London: LONGMAN, BROWN, GREEN, and LONGMANS.

NEW WORK BY MR. C. H. SCOTT.

Nearly ready, in One Volume, post 8vo,

THE DANES AND THE SWEDES: being an Account of a Visit to Denmark, including Schleswig-Holstein and the Danish Islands, with a Peep into Jutland, and a Journey across the Peninsula of Sweden; embracing a Sketch of the most important points in the History of those Countries. By CHARLES HENRY SCOTT, Author of "The Baltic, the Black Sea, and the Crimea."
London: LONGMAN, BROWN, GREEN, and LONGMANS.

Just published, in 8vo, price 15s. cloth,

THE BRITISH CONSUL'S MANUAL: being a Practical Guide for Consuls, as well as for the Merchant, Shipowner, and Master Mariner, in all their Consular Transactions; and containing the Commercial Treaties between Great Britain and Foreign Countries, brought down to the present date. By E. W. A. TUSON, of the Inner Temple; Chancellor of the Imperial Austrian Consulate-General in London.
London: LONGMAN, BROWN, GREEN, and LONGMANS.

THE WAR WITH RUSSIA IN THE PACIFIC.

Just published, in post 8vo, with Chart, price 10s. 6d. cloth,

NOTES ON THE LATE EXPEDITION AGAINST THE RUSSIAN SETTLEMENTS IN EASTERN SIBERIA; and of a VISIT to JAPAN and to the SHORES OF TARTARY and of the SEA of OKHOTSK. By Captain BERNARD WHITTINGHAM, Royal Engineers.
London: LONGMAN, BROWN, GREEN, and LONGMANS.

DR. TRAVERS TWISS'S LECTURES, &c.

Just published, in 8vo, price 4s. cloth,

TWO INTRODUCTORY LECTURES ON THE SCIENCE OF INTERNATIONAL LAW. By TRAVERS TWISS, D.C.L., F.R.S., Regius Professor of Civil Law in the University of Oxford, and Advocate in Doctors' Commons.

By the same Author, in 8vo, price 1s. 6d.

A LETTER TO THE VICE-CHANCELLOR OF THE UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD ON THE LAW STUDIES OF THE UNIVERSITY.
London: LONGMAN, BROWN, GREEN, and LONGMANS.

MR. MACAULAY'S ESSAYS.

A New Edition, in Three Pocket Volumes, Fcap. 8vo, price 21s.

CRITICAL AND HISTORICAL ESSAYS contributed to the "Edinburgh Review." By the Right Hon. T. B. MACAULAY, M.P.—Also, Library Edition (the Eighth), 3 Vols. 8vo, 36s. Complete in One Volume, Square crown 8vo, 21s. The People's Edition, 2 Vols. crown 8vo, 8s.

MR. MACAULAY'S HISTORY OF ENGLAND from the Accession of James the Second.

Vols. I. and II. (Eleventh Edition) 8vo, 32s.

Vols. III. and IV. (just published) 8vo, 36s.

London: LONGMAN, BROWN, GREEN, and LONGMANS.

NEW NOVELS IN COURSE OF PUBLICATION

BY

SMITH, ELDER, & CO.

I.

AMBERHILL. By A. J. BARROWCLIFFE. In Two Volumes. [Now Ready at all the Libraries.]

II.

AFTER DARK. By WILKIE COLLINS, Author of "Basil." "Hide and Seek," &c. In Two Volumes. [Just Ready.]

III.

MAURICE ELVINGTON: an Autobiography. Edited by WILFRED EAST. In Three Volumes. [Nearly Ready.]

IV.

BEYMINSTRE. By the Author of "Lena," "King's Cope," &c. In Three Volumes. [Early in March.]

V.

LEONORA. By the Hon. Mrs. MABERLEY. [In April.]

VI.

ERLESMERE. In Two Volumes.

VII.

A NEW STORY, by TALBOT GWYNNE, Author of "The School for Fathers," "Nanette and her Lovers," &c.

NOVELS RECENTLY PUBLISHED.

I.

GILBERT MASSINGER. By HOLME LEE. One Volume.

II.

A LOST LOVE. By ASHFORD OWEN. One Volume.

III.

MY FIRST SEASON. By BEATRICE REYNOLDS. One Volume.

IV.

GRACE LEE. By JULIA KAVANAGH. Three Volumes.

LONDON: SMITH, ELDER, AND CO., 65, CORNHILL.

London: Printed by THOMAS CHURCH SAVILL and JAMES ALLEN EDWARDS, at their Office, 4, Chandos-street, Covent-garden, in the County of Middlesex; and Published by JOHN WILLIAM PARKER and SON, at 445, West Strand, in the same County.—January 26, 1856.